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On to Victory!

(Beethoven's Fifth Symphony)

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The conquered and oppressed peoples of Europe and Asia and Africa are awaiting the final liberation of their lands. For the past several months Beethoven's Fifth Symphony has reached its higher crescendoes. Although victory will be achieved everywhere by the United Nations over the enemies of freedom and over intolerance, the final note cannot be sounded until full retribution has been made as a result of a treaty of peace and the unwritten supplementary aspects to such an official ending of the conflict.

It has been significant that the European victims of the Nazi and Fascist aggressions had united all the downtrodden, oppressed and persecuted victims of the aggressors under the spiritual notes of the opening bars of Beethoven's Fifth Symphony. The international Morse code letter for V—dit, dit, dit, dah . . . sends out the same note. The two elements—the spiritual and the scientific were blended into a harmonious whole for the great symbol of victory—"V." People have said it, whistled it; orchestras, bands, horns and other instruments have blared it forth . . . dit, dit, dit, dah . . . dit, dit, dit, dah . . . V . . . V . . . The Fifth Symphony of Beethoven has symbolized the unceasing fight against the ruthlessness of the dictators.

In the words of Winston Churchill, the symphony has become "the symbol of the unconquerable will of the occupied territories." It is a fitting tribute to the indomitable spirit of that titanic mind, who for nearly a century and a half has been the personification of an uncompromising struggle against tyranny and oppression in any form. For no matter what the Nazis would have liked Beethoven's music to stand for, it can never be anything but a symbol for victory by the United Nations.

When one examines the music and life of this intense musical spirit, it becomes increasingly clear that Beethoven, were he alive today, would be fighting, in his own way, with the United Nations against despotism and slavery. If not, he would have perished in a Nazi concentration camp long ago.

Robert Schumann, a discerning critic as well as composer, said that a revolution might be confined within the four movements of a symphony, and the authorities be none the wiser. In the light of the past few years, this revolution apparently has been found within those first four notes of Beethoven's Fifth Symphony, of which the composer is supposed to have said: "Thus Fate knocks at the door." At the doors of the millions of homes in oppressed Europe and Asia, fate has been knocking like a sledgehammer, to the sound of three dots and a dash. In France,

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Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Italy, and China, the sign of victory has appeared everywhere. In the Netherlands, the Germans had been irritated by the cheering of captured British fliers. In Sweden, ammunition trains had been mysteriously blown up. All over Europe, where people could not speak, but still could hear, the music of the Fifth Symphony sent hope and determination into their hearts. And as long as people heard those four knocks of fate—an inexorable, unceasing, unconquerable knocking—freedom was coming.

As long as the music of Beethoven is heard anywhere—on the radio, at the concert-hall, on records, or even in the minds of man—the voice of freedom cannot be stilled. When the "Eroica Symphony" is played, Beethoven is speaking for humanity. It is in this symphony, whose dedication was originally made to Napoleon—not to the Napoleon who became Emperor but to the Napoleon who was to become the liberator of humanity, and at the same time the destroying force of despotic monarchy—that the free democratic spirit pervades. When Beethoven received the news that Napoleon had proclaimed himself Emperor, he flew into a rage. The dedication page of the "Eroica" was torn up in a fury of uncontrolled anger. "Is he then, too, nothing more than an ordinary human being?" Beethoven shouted! "Now he, too, will trample on all the rights of man and indulge only in his ambitions. He will exalt himself above others, and become a tyrant."

Long before Napoleon had become powerful, Beethoven showed evidence of his democratic spirit; for when he received the news at Bonn, his birthplace, that the Bastille had fallen, in July, 1789, Beethoven rejoiced. To him freedom was freedom for people everywhere. It was not an isolated object which one spoke about. It was something to fight and to act for. Shortly thereafter, he subscribed to an edition of poetry, which might well have been his creed throughout his life: "To scorn bigotry, break the scepter of stupidity, and to fight for the rights of man is a task that no prince's valet can perform. There must be free souls who prefer death to flattery and poverty to servitude . . . And let it be known that among such souls mine shall not be the last to offer itself. . . ."

The Nazis tried to twist the music of Beethoven into a symbol for German victory. How could they? It was a task which even the tremendous propaganda machine of Dr. Goebbels had been unable to carry out. Since the Nazis had realized the power which was inherent in the music of Beethoven, they had tried to subvert it to their own ends. In the Netherlands, news broadcasts had been concluded with Beethoven's Fifth Symphony. But Beethoven had already portrayed the heroic struggle of the Dutch to free themselves from the yoke of Spanish domination

in his "Egmont" overture. and "Egmont" reinterpreted could stand only for the liberation, not only of the Dutch, but of the Poles, the Czechs, the Greeks, the Italians, and all the other nations who have been forced to bow down in homage to the three "man scourges" of mankind in Europe and Asia.

When Bruno Walter, the distinguished conductor and refugee from Nazism, conducted "Fidelio" several winters ago at the Metropolitan Opera in New York, he carried out an act of devotion and faith to the ideals of Beethoven. He had conducted this work numerous times in countries which had fallen prey to the Nazi legions. Wherever "Fidelio" is performed, it can only tell in its own immortal speech the triumph of love and faith over hatred and oppression. Beethoven bellows defiance against the established order and says "evil cannot reign supreme"; that "if one continues to believe in the forces of good against the forces of evil, good must triumph." What had the Nazis or their "Asiatic brothers" been able to do in reply to such a powerful message?

What had the Nazis been able to do about Beethoven's "Battle Symphony" in which Victory is portrayed for the English over Napoleon? What had they been able to do about the final movement, where "God Save the King" reigns triumphant? What were they able to do about Beethoven's ancestry, which was not German, but Flemish? When the Nazis bowed low in obeisance before their "god" Hitler, what could they have said of Beethoven who refused to step aside or bow before the "Imperial Majesty of Austria?"

What could they have told the French? Romain Rolland had already told the French that Beethoven "preferred to starve than mince the truth," and that "he carried this haughty profession of republicanism into the salons of Vienna, where from his earliest successes, he rode rough-shod over the aristocracy that feted him?"

No, the Nazis could never have subverted Beethoven to their own ends. Nor could they, or the Italian Fascists speak of the greatest operatic composer that Italy has produced—as their own. Three of Verdi's operas had originally been banned by the censor, for fear of fomenting revolution when Venice had been subjugated by Austria. More than words, the music of Verdi might have become a symbol of freedom for the Italian. V for Verdi, and V for Vittoria.

The United Nations could have broadcast the music of the three operas, which were banned when Italy was ruled by a foreign nation: "Ernani," "The Masked Ball," and "Rigoletto," these could have spoken more eloquently to the Italians than Mussolini's vacuous spouting. Music has always been a

powerful factor in Italian life, and when "The Masked Ball" was banned, Verdi became the symbol of a free, united Italy. During our time, history is repeating itself.

To Italy, France, Belgium, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Austria, China and every other conquered nation, Beethoven's music stands for "V"—for the United Nations victory, for the triumph of democracy, for the joyous release of the imprisoned human spirit. It had been impossible for the Nazis to call Beethoven their own. He has been the complete antithesis of their ideology and their "god." Where Beethoven, in a period of chaos, stood for courage, Hitler stood for fear. Where Beethoven represented reason, Hitler represented prejudice. Where Beethoven was for freedom, Hitler was tyranny. Where Beethoven stood for the rights of the individual, Hitler preached the subjugation of the person to the state. To have

called Beethoven a symbol of German victory, was to have called the words and beliefs of Churchill the same as Hitler's.

Now that the final signal for action has been given, the Fifth Symphony is giving way to the Ninth. Where Hitler sang the hymn of hate, Beethoven sings the hymn of joy. Just as the present world is engaged in a titanic struggle, so Beethoven fought his way through chaos and solitude to discover that eternal joy may be found in the "brotherhood of man." In his own words, and in the words of the immortal Schiller, Beethoven speaks now and forever through his music:

Oh dearest brothers, these tones no longer!
Rather raise we all together now our voices,
And sing more joyfully. . . .
Brothers, come, away with sadness
Joyful on to victory.

American History in Schools and Colleges

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A significant 148-page committee report, *American History in Schools and Colleges*, was published by Macmillan's early in 1944. It was initiated by the Mississippi Valley Historical Association at its meeting in 1943 at Cedar Rapids, Iowa, and was prepared by a strong committee with the help of its director, Professor Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota. This committee was a joint committee of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, the National Council of Social Studies, and the American Historical Association.

Every learned society should periodically examine the contribution which its field can make to society and suggest the best method by which this can be made. The most significant comment that can be made about this *Report* is that it recognizes such responsibility. We are living in an age of crisis. This word has only recently come into the Chinese language. Having no symbol to use in writing it, they combined their symbol for the word "danger" with that for "opportunity." To them this expressed the meaning of "crisis." At a time when all phases of human life are being placed under the microscope and before the telescope, it is the marvelous opportunity that ought to dominate our actions.

Basically the origin of the *Report* is due to three factors: First, the American Historical Association for more than fifty years has periodically examined the problem of the teaching of history in our schools

and the cycle for a re-examination was about due. That this came in the 1940's rather than in the 1950's was due to the second factor, namely, the present war. The war caused millions of Americans to realize more fully how much they loved their country and the rich heritage of its ideals. This spirit is illustrated by the story of a gallant soldier home from the Pacific battlefield who upon returning to the United States knelt and kissed its soil. Never before in war were the American people as united. Their past history has taken on new interest and usefulness.

In Europe every nationality has been brought to a consciousness of its own inner unity by learning of its past. The story of the common glories and common sorrows experienced by a people welded them into a nation. When Palacky, the great Czech historian, undertook to revive the national spirit of the Czechs, he began by writing their history. There has been abroad in America the intuitive feeling that its citizens cannot give their fullest loyalty to the nation in its hour of dire need without an understanding of its ideals and aspirations as they have developed in its past. It was undoubtedly because of this *zeitgeist* that the survey of the teaching of American history by the *New York Times* received such immediate and wide attention.

It would have been helpful if the *Report* had referred to the articles which appeared in the *New York Times*, June 21, 1942 and April 4, 1943, and

to the discussions in the United States Senate on April 6, 1943, for certainly these constituted the third factor which stimulated the three societies to leadership and precipitated the *Report* in the spring of 1944.¹ The first survey of the *New York Times* reported that 72 per cent of colleges and universities did not require American history for admission and nearly 90 per cent did not require it for graduation. When the colleges replied that many students' programs left no time for American history and that college students brought a knowledge of this subject from high school, the *New York Times* examined 7,000 freshman college students and found them woefully lacking in this respect.

On April 6, 1943, when the results were released, the *Philadelphia Record* observed: "It is time for Americans to know their history. . . a great many of us know almost nothing about these 'woods and templed hills' and even less of the history of the 'land where my fathers died.'" Even the United States Senate considered "the appalling neglect of United States history in our public schools." A resolution instructed its Committee on Education and Labor "to study the ways and means by which the Federal Government may most effectively promote a more thorough study of the history of the United States."

The two surveys and the conclusions drawn from them became almost over night the subject of conversation among thousands of citizens and of discussions at conventions, forums, and other meetings all over the country. They touched off what was already in the minds of many Americans. Partly as a result of this publicity, American history has gained ground. There has been an increase in the number of books read dealing with this subject. Both the Army and Navy student training programs require its study. Faculties and trustees in some colleges and universities have made its study required for a degree. In other institutions more students are studying it. Spe-

¹ The annual Pulitzer gold medal "for the most disinterested and meritorious public service rendered by an American newspaper during the year" was awarded to the *New York Times* for 1943, in recognition of the importance of its articles on the teaching of American history.

Many opinions of prominent educators and other leaders on the subject, actions of various educational associations, letters to the editor, and editorials on the subject appeared in newspapers and magazines. In the *New York Times* such articles appeared on June 21, 24, 26, 30, 1942; April 4-15, 18, 23, 25, May 3, 9, 14, June 16, 24, 28, September 5, 6, November 21, December 5, 13, 31, 1943; February 6, 16, April 21, 23, May 2, 7, 28, and June 4, 1944.

Many requests came to senators for a copy of the *Congressional Record* for April 6, 1944, the day the question was discussed in the Senate. After Senator Shipstead had received approximately 10,000 such requests, the Senate at his suggestion, printed the two major *New York Times* articles that had appeared on June 21, 1942 and April 4, 1943, with brief comments, under the title, "Survey of United States History in Colleges and Schools," as *Senate Document* 26, 2 sess., 78 Cong.

cial institutes have been set up in some schools to inculcate loyalty to country or to serve as a clearing house to improve the teaching of American history. It is in this setting then that the *Report* should be considered.

This is probably one of the best written reports dealing with the teaching of history. Its lively style makes its reading thoroughly enjoyable. Not only students and teachers of history and school administrators, but also many other citizens will find its reading profitable. For some years it will undoubtedly exert much national influence.

This *Report* is not radical or revolutionary, but progressive and practical. It restates and brings up to date many ideas and ideals, policies and programs, which have in some degree appeared in print before. Its major contribution lies in the great clarity and emphasis with which it presents these, and in the clearcut, forthright expression of its recommendations. These will give direction and accelerate movements already under way. Moreover, the Committee has presented recommendations that are feasible. They can be carried out with present equipment and by teachers trained in past years.

A member of the Progressive Education Association would have been pleased to have seen a more revolutionary report. To him, the teaching of history should be more functional. He would emphasize much more the history of the immediate past and also regard the events of today as good history, even though still in the making. He would build upon the pupil's interest by proceeding from the near to the remote. To him a fundamental issue is involved, an issue stated thus by Mr. Kettering of General Motors at Antioch College in October, 1943: "We spend all our time studying the past. Now I have no objection to history—history is very important but we've been looking at the past and backing into the future. I want us to turn around and back into history far enough to get a good look ahead." A member of the Progressive Education Association would want an area of learning selected for study, and then, starting with the contemporary scene, have the students collect and master such historical data as would be useful for the area selected. History would thus be fused with the other social studies. It may be that fifty years from now this point of view may in general be considered orthodox.

The excellent Chapter IV of the *Report*, entitled, "History beyond the Classroom," gives perhaps the most thorough treatment of this subject now available. In it we read: "The high school or college graduate may forget his foreign language, fail to use his algebra, and neglect his chemistry completely, but he cannot avoid more lessons in American history." The *Report* then shows how the past speaks through such agencies as the radio, movie, novel, magazine,

sermon, popular historical book, museum, etc. More work is needed to show how the work of such agencies can be utilized effectively in the classroom, and how the school can lay a solid foundation to enhance such after-school learning. On the college and university level there is the added problem of how such institutions can assist these agencies to serve the public better.

A perfect test in any subject has yet to be constructed. It has been relatively easy to point out weaknesses in the test used by the *New York Times*. The content of the test used for this *Report*, its involved sentence structure, the method of administering it to adult groups, and the validity of the conclusions drawn from it are not entirely satisfying. To be valid for the adult groups, the testing should have been supervised and a larger number included. Some of the questions could not be answered on the basis of many texts in common use. In its conclusion the Committee deplores the lack of popular knowledge of American history. It states, for example, that "seventy per cent of the group from *Who's Who in America* thought that Thomas Jefferson helped to frame the Constitution. This result alone substantiates the statement that well-informed persons may not know an important historical fact."

Now Jefferson's absence from the Constitutional Convention in 1787 is not specifically mentioned even in the most widely used college text in American history today. Hence few persons ever were taught it or knew it, and to many of these few it was soon lost from their stock of information. On this point the psychologist assists us. After the learning of meaningful material, the process of forgetting proceeds at a rapid rate. For the vast majority, unless there is repetition, in five days about 40 per cent is lost; in twenty days 60 per cent; and in forty days 70 per cent. In a splendid statement the *Report* declares: "The truth is that at any one level much may be taught, less will be learned, and a great deal will subsequently be forgotten." This is as true of chemistry, mathematics, or Latin as it is of history when the subject is not used in daily life. The fact that a student has forgotten much that he was taught is not necessarily a sign of poor teaching.

Among the conclusions drawn from the Committee's test, Table II on page twelve is an amazing exhibit in secondary education. It seems to demonstrate that taking a senior high school course in American history improved a student's score only about one point over and above the score of a student who did not take such a course. Moreover, statistically, there is about one chance in four that even this small difference is due to chance. This illustrates the disquietude which the thoughtful reader may have in considering the validity of some of the conclusions in chapter one as drawn from the test.

On the relation of research to teaching, the *Report* says:

"Unfortunately the idea is current, particularly in some university circles, that teaching is of secondary importance to research, and that good teaching smacks faintly of exhibitionism. The Committee cannot condemn too harshly these harmful assumptions. It believes in research, and would in no way seek to discourage it, but it believes also that the ordinary professor must never forget that he is first and foremost a teacher. Research professorships are entirely justifiable, but men who have no interest in or aptitude for teaching should not be allowed to blunt the interest and waste the time of college students.

The primary obligation of the college teacher of history is to present his subject in an interesting and stimulating manner. We believe in the value of research and publication, but we deplore any tendency to stress research at the expense of good teaching. (pp. 90-91 and 119)

There is abroad in a considerable number of recent publications and addresses, a tendency to suggest that research and writing are not important functions of the college and university teacher and to couple them in the mind of the reader with poor teaching. True, there are some cases wherein this is correct, but these constitute but a small minority. Where research is discouraged, there is danger that a professor will cease to be aware of the new developments that are constantly taking place in his field. It is this positive attitude toward research that is lacking in the *Report*.

I am willing to assert that if each of us tries to recall the half dozen poorest professors who taught us, we would find that most of them carried on little or no research. Creative scholarship which keeps alive the wellsprings of knowledge is one of the firmest supports for inspired college and university teaching. Who is there, who would not gladly sit at the feet of such men as Millikin, Compton, James Harvey Robinson, Albert Bushnell Hart, Breasted, Burr, Cheyney, Bolton, and Beard? This factor is important because the Committee looks forward to the post-war period when a master's degree or its equivalent will be required of a high school teacher.

A very satisfying and almost up-to-the-minute survey of the status of American history in our schools during the last half century is given in Chapter III of the *Report*, a survey based on much research. Contrary to the view often held that American history is being crowded out of the curriculum, the survey shows that its study has been increasing rapidly. In 1920, for example, only 13.5 per cent of entering freshmen at Ohio State University reported having studied a full year of American history in-

high school, whereas in 1940, the percentage was 80.5.

Either by state law or state department of education regulation, the teaching of American history is required in the elementary school in all but three states—New Jersey, Colorado, and Georgia—and in high schools in all but two—New Jersey and Colorado. Even if not required, American history is usually taught. The evidence is incontrovertible that it is taught in the vast majority of schools in three cycles, usually in the fifth, eighth, and eleventh school years, and is studied by nearly all pupils in each of these years.

The *Report*, however, makes no recommendation that the gap of 5 or 10 per cent where American history is not required be eliminated. The Committee no doubt trusts that public opinion and the sweep of the general movement will bring this about. This *Report* is one of the few such reports prepared by a subject group which specifically renounces any claims to further increases of curricular time for its subject. The crying need is therefore not for more requirements, but for more material equipment and better teaching.

The *Report* agrees with critics that the crux of the American history problem centers around the teacher. Higher standards of preparation should be required and assigning history classes to a teacher merely to fill his schedule should be discontinued. The Committee's outline for a history teacher's preparation is a forward-looking one and includes the study of at least two other social studies. Unfortunately, especially in war time, this standard cannot be reached in many small communities where geographical location often precludes greater consolidation; hence a teacher must often teach three or even more subjects, and he can seldom be ideally prepared in all. Salaries need to be increased. Decreasing the load of overburdened teachers must await the coming of peace in most cases.

The Committee has a notable paragraph on freedom of teaching. After condemning petty interferences, hampering restrictions, and the dictation of pressure groups, it declares: "The teacher must achieve freedom; it cannot be conferred upon him. . . . Freedom is a privilege or condition which must be won by study, judgment, poise, good intentions, and all-round professional competence. The teacher must deserve freedom by demonstrating his competence to perform a professional service in a professional manner. In the long run not even the legislature or the courts can guarantee freedom to an unworthy teacher."

The question might well be asked as to whether factual learning is not underestimated in the *Report*. It asserts: "The retention of facts is not the exponent

of historical power." A more correct statement would be that it is "only one of the exponents of historical power." There can be no true understanding nor sound interpretation and synthesis without a thorough knowledge of the facts involved. Significant learning must therefore include factual content. Too often the term "mere facts" is used when what is meant is "poorly selected facts."

The danger of generalizing without a knowledge of relevant, detailed facts is illustrated by the way in which the public regards the use of the new sulfa drugs and the way in which they are sometimes promiscuously prescribed without checking results. Sulfanilamide, for example, destroys red blood corpuscles and therefore when it is being taken red blood cell counts and hemoglobin determinations at regular intervals are desirable. It also has a depressant effect on the white blood cell producing tissue of the bone marrow. Therefore it is important to do frequent white blood cell counts for warning of such possible serious effect, especially if the treatment extends over more than one or two days. Detailed factual knowledge is as necessary as a point of view or an interpretation, for an intelligent judgment can only be arrived at if the relevant facts are known.

In one of the most important chapters of the *Report* the Committee makes recommendations for American history courses which it is hoped will become as important in this field as the old Committee of Seven report was in the general field. "The blunt truth of the present situation," declares the Committee, "is that courses in American history are often outright duplications of one another." The chief problem centers on the senior high school course duplicating that given in the junior high school and the college survey course duplicating the senior high school course. The Committee therefore suggests that the emphasis in the elementary school be placed on the period from 1492 to 1776; in the junior high school on the period 1763 to 1876; and in the senior high school on the period since 1865. It suggests for each course a minimum content and that each course be enriched by the addition of state and local history, and current events. Certain basic skills are also listed for systematic training in each course. In attacking wearisome duplication, the Committee may not have given enough emphasis to its brief statement that only unplanned repetition is objectionable, but that planned and orderly repetition of essential materials is not only desirable but necessary.²

² The selection of courses to be taught in high school and specific recommendations as to their content have been presented from another point of view in a two-year study made by the Middle States Council for the Social Studies. Many teachers participated in this study. The final report appears in the 1944 *Proceedings of the Council*, edited by Jeannette P. Nichols, Morris Wolf and Arthur C. Bining.

Thus far the *New York Times* would agree with practically all that the Committee recommends, but when it comes to college and university programs, the two part company. The former would by state law or by trustee and faculty regulation make the study of American history a requirement for all undergraduate degrees. The Committee, while granting that the number of students enrolled in college American history courses is far too small, recommends that this be increased by enriching and broadening the course and improving its teaching rather than by requiring it. Too often it has been poorly planned and taught and has merely duplicated a good senior high school course.

The Committee recommends that the college survey course be kept as a sophomore course, but that its content be altered to conform to the suggested new title, "American Civilization: its Origins and Development." Such topics as the history of ideas, science and invention, cultural trends, the role of religion, humanitarianism, and philosophy, education, music, and art are to be included and the entire story given a proper setting in the history of the western hemisphere and taught from a world point of view. Should such a change not make the course a successful educational adventure for students, the Committee would abolish it. Meantime, the Committee recommends that students who reveal no need for such a course be advised not to take it. In many colleges and universities juniors and seniors may instead elect advanced, specialized courses without having had the survey course.

In imagination, one can see another *New York Times* survey made fifty years hence, this time to discover how much world history students know. Our schools may then be criticized for the deficiencies of pupils in world history, as they are today for deficiencies in American history. The need for such knowledge is recognized, though not emphasized in

this *Report*. The Committee wisely recommends that all high school students take a course in world history, and that American history be so taught that students will be keenly aware of the relations between the United States and the rest of the world.

Unless American history teachers grasp this outlook, then the present wave of emphasis upon teaching American history will result in narrow provincialism and dangerous nationalism and bring only ashen disillusionment. Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald in a speech to the American Congress on June 16, 1932, in the midst of the great depression asserted: "In these times there is no Italy, no Germany, no America, no Britain apart from the rest of the nations. There is nothing smaller than a world, nothing less than a system which is crumbling around our feet." His words remind one of analogous words by Patrick Henry: "Fleets and armies and the present state of things show that government is dissolved . . . the distinction between Virginians, Pennsylvanians, New Yorkers, and New Englanders are no more. I am not a Virginian, but an American."

As we have viewed the quiet, almost dignified manner in which our young men have surrendered cheerfully their years of joyous youth and gone forth to die if necessary for the land they love, who shall say that they lack an understanding of our institutions, our history, and our spiritual heritage? That they have so nobly met the crisis is due in part to the way in which they and their parents have been taught the history of the United States. The vast majority of our teachers have taught it conscientiously and efficiently. True, if conditions had been more favorable and their training more adequate, they would have been able to produce even better results. It is to help achieve this goal that the stimulating articles in the *New York Times* have been published and that this excellent *Report* has been issued.

World History and a World Outlook

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As nearly as anyone can tell, there are as many people in China as in mainland Europe; and more people in China and Japan together than in Europe with Great Britain. Furthermore, that situation has probably existed for a very long time, since all will admit that China was a civilized land even before Europe. Surely China's fate, then, purely from the point of view of human beings, is in general just as important as is Europe's.

Yet, there is an incongruous situation in our social sciences, and most particularly in our history writing, which has sometimes been noted, but about which nothing to my knowledge has ever been effectively done. The up-to-date general histories mention China in one or two chapters, whereas they spend all of the rest of their time on Europe. Is this because only Europe has changed, only Europe has had things happen? Anyone who has studied the history of

China will tell you this is not true. Is this because most of mankind now lives in a European culture, and the Chinese culture patterns have been ended?

It is true that Europe has colonized vast areas; but the only dense population resulting has been in the United States. With all her colonies, Europe still has not a great deal more population than China and Japan, whose past culture certainly has not ended. The history of Chinese culture, then, is very nearly as important, from an international point of view, to modern world humanity, as is the history of Europe. Yet when we read "world history" we read chiefly of Europe.

Why is this? There seem to me to be three chief reasons. The first one will be evident when one remembers that the historians of the "Middle Kingdom" considered *China* as very nearly the only actor in world history. The reason for both the Chinese and the European exclusiveness is the same: snobbish misunderstanding.

The second reason is rather more defensible: Europe has had more influence on China since the Industrial Revolution, than China has had on Europe. Granted! But will we get a true picture of the world, if we study only the dominating power, and not the dominated? After all, until extremely recently—as the history of civilization goes—there was probably more influence in the other direction; and we are beginning to realize that that may well be the case again.

The third reason goes to the heart of the matter: our civilization is European, therefore we are interested only in that history which can tell us how we got this way. In this case let us be frank about it, and stop talking about *world* history, or *general* history, when we really mean the history of European countries and their colonies (with a few remarks about the rest of the world thrown in). Some modern historians do this, indeed; but not the average person. However, I think that it is by no means true that *world* history has no great importance for us.

What are the purposes of history? They are many. Certainly a primary purpose of general history, either of all Europe, or of the civilization of all the world, is to help us to understand the civilization of today, and to put it in its historic setting—just as a social worker, when taking up a case, first makes as all-inclusive a case history as he can in order to guide him.

But surely now we must realize, even if never before, that we Europeans are not alone in the world: China, Japan, India, Egypt, Iran—these lands are playing important parts in the lives of Europeans and Americans now, and may play a still more important part in our children's time. If we are to treat the ills of one country, we have learned we must take the whole world into consideration. Are we not rather

foolish when we say that we have no use for a history of the world as a whole?

A particularly pressing need for world history is presented now by the crisis in the European empires. A certain popular writer analyzes the causes of European imperialism solely in terms of internal European factors. But can we understand why Europe could rule, without finding out why the rest of the world could be ruled? How successful will the writer now be in understanding the general but varying resurgences of the dominated lands, if he has only European background for his analysis?

And further, is it true that we can understand even our own history of Europe and Europeans without understanding its setting in the world as a whole? No matter how much the Chinese studied the history of China, could they really understand it before they realized that it was not the central point of the earth? Could not the same thing be said of us?

We have known a long time that "the Crusades brought Europe knowledge of a more advanced culture" than her own. Is it enough to point out the specific items Europe learned, without attempting to set the European and Near Eastern cultures objectively side by side in a single history, where we could see not only what details Europe got, but also what she failed to accept; and more important, in what ways both developed in common? There is danger, in studying one country, that one may analyze all its events in terms of that country alone, whereas if one looks around he sees evidently related events elsewhere, that shows causes and development cannot be purely national but must be international. Likewise in studying Europe, should we assume that we are safe in looking for the causes of European developments within Europe alone?

I would go so far as to believe that if we began to study the history of the world as a whole, and not in the unbalanced way we have pretended to study it, we would discover that European history—in all its phases, social, economic, artistic, religious—has in the main, at least until recently, been a *dependent* part of the general development of civilization. Studying it in that light we will receive a new understanding both of Europe and of the human race. It will not do categorically to deny this surmise; the only way to show its falsehood is to study world history from this point of view, and see.

There is a further reason for studying world history as such, even apart from its value as history: its value in breaking down our ethnocentrism. What I have here to say could be said for most of the social sciences; but a world history is a particularly suitable way to meet the problem. We Americans need almost as much as anything else these days to acquire a healthy realization of the position we hold in the

modern world. It is strong, to be sure, but precarious. We have only about 6 per cent of the world's population. So far, we have been more highly industrialized than most of the rest of the world. But India and China are becoming industrialized, and we have learned to our sorrow that Japan already is.

Consider that the population of the world can be divided into four roughly equal parts: 554,000,000 in China and Japan; 526,000,000 in Hither and Further India; 534,000,000 in Europe with Britain; and 556,000,000 in all the rest of the world.¹ Even all Europeans and their descendents overseas make up at most about a third of the world population. We Europeans have been lording it over the rest of the earth; the other nations are already objecting, and their objections seem likely to increase. Is it not time that we wake up to the fact that we are not the only people in the world that matter?

Teachers and writers of the social sciences, and especially historians, can do much to bring us to the world outlook that is necessary. And now is the time to bend every effort toward that aim. There is a map published I expect by the *New Yorker* showing the United States as seen from that city. On that map Manhattan becomes bigger than Illinois. Chicagoans laugh at that; but Chiang Kai-shek does not laugh when he sees that we Americans have just this kind of a view of the world: America and Europe are very big, the rest is insignificant. We must change that map!

I do not suggest, of course, that America and Europe be given no more attention in our schools and libraries than China and India. Particular histories of phases especially important to the reader are very important. But just as we don't write histories of the modern Occident three-fourths of whose content deals with the United States, but rather have special books and courses meeting our special need for American history, so we should not allow our special need for Occidental history to destroy our chance to learn world history. A general history—whether a thin volume for the public, or a quarter or a semester course for the student—is also needed, to supply an undistorted framework into which a particular history can be set as an elaboration of one or another part of the general history.

Now if it is of the utmost importance that our historians and social scientists in general build a "global," world outlook, then there are many things we can do about it. Specifically, we should do two types of things: first, encourage the writing of *world* history. I believe I am safe in saying that there is not a single history book in existence which attempts to present as *one* picture, with no undue prominence for

Europe, the development of civilization all over the Old World.² Second, even if that cannot be done just now, we should not sabotage the possibility of people thinking in terms of a "global" world, by continuing to talk in terms which give the lay mind a distorted picture of the world, and so help to maintain the already disastrously provincial ideas which we have.

The things I shall mention in this respect may seem minor; and they would not be important if it were not that the prejudice which they confirm is already with us. But unfortunately it is, and it is surely unwise to pamper and feed it, even in little things.

For instance, the Mercator's projection map of the world literally does for our distorted world-view very nearly what the *New Yorker* map does for New Yorkers. On Mercator's projection, England, actually smaller than the Indian state of Hyderabad, appears nearly three times the size of that region. This is because Mercator exaggerates the north—North America, Europe, Russia—at the expense of areas farther south, like India or the Near East. And it is our own already exaggerated countries that tend to be in the north. When other maps of the world, based on better scales, and serving every purpose the Mercator can, are available, it seems serious negligence to go on using so distorted a map, in classrooms or elsewhere.

There are, then, three general types of phrases which I urge to avoid. First come those about the geographical nature of Europe, which elevate that peninsula to the status of a continent. Geologically speaking, to divide Eurasia into two continents at the Urals is silly. The peninsula of India is only a little smaller than Europe, and has a much more real division from the rest of the continent. If there is any historic division between Europe and the rest of Eurasia, it is the line the Greeks used, about in the middle of "European Russia," where the peninsula ceases to be peninsular: for there has been found if anywhere the dividing line between Slav and "Central Asian." But this is no continental division.

The reason I urge that this elevation of Europe to continental status be abandoned should be evident. An amusing instance of how it misled an intelligent author will help to make it clear. Van Loon (after noting the absurdity of calling Europe a continent, but not wanting to add to the confusion by denying it that status) tries to compare the historical positions of "Asia" and of Europe.³ He says that while

² Perhaps the informal letters of Nehru should be considered a regular history, and hence a rather inadequate exception. Toynbee's work is, of course a study, not a narrative history.

³ Hendrik W. Van Loon, *Geography*, p. 78.

¹ League of Nations statistics for 1941.

"Asia's" rivers ran "in any old direction," Europe's all flowed straight to the sea—hence Europe expanded and "Asia" didn't. The statement might have made sense if it had compared comparable areas and populations—Europe with India or China, for instance; but in that case, the whole point about the rivers would have been gone. Van Loon might be commended for not wanting to "add to the existing confusion" if the existing confusion were not already so great that it could hardly be added to.

Therefore, in order to avoid encouraging the idea that Europe is a continent on a par with the rest of Eurasia, we should: (1) not refer to "the whole continent" of Europe, but rather to "the mainland," or "the whole peninsula" of Europe; (2) avoid the use of maps which carry a pointless line through the middle of Russia; (3) not speak of "Asiatic" as if it characterized anything specially concrete as does "European" or "American"; (4) scrutinize everything we say about "Asia" or its subdivisions to make sure we are not making inapplicable comparisons with Europe or its subdivisions.

The second type of phrase to avoid is that which speaks of "East" and "West" as complementary halves of world civilization. Is there anything more absurd than our use of the words "Eastern" or "Oriental?" We cover everything with them, from Algeria and Russia to Java and Japan—that is, almost everything non-European. Yet it is clear that we are not dealing with a single civilization here similar to the single "Occidental" one.

A brief survey will show at least three great civilizations in the "East," as different from each other as each is from Europe. For instance, whereas Europe uses the Greek (and Roman) alphabets, the Near East uses the Arabic script, the Indias use distinctively Hindu types of letters, and the Far East uses the Chinese characters. Europe is Christian, the Near East Moslem, the Indias Hindu and primitive Buddhist, the Far East Mahayana Buddhist. In other things the underlying cultures are equally diverse. The equation of "East" and "West" not only implies that *our* culture is the equal of the sum of the others, but ignores the very important fact that all non-Europeans are by no means alike. It would probably be a great deal more reasonable to divide the world into Celestial and Barbarian civilizations, as the Chinese did; for the Chinese is probably the most distinctive of all the cultures.

Of course, certain things can be predicated of Europe which cannot be of the other lands; but likewise certain things can be predicated of Iceland that cannot be of any other place. This does not make it reasonable to divide world culture into the two branches Icelandic and non-Icelandic; Norway's culture, for instance, is much closer to Ice-

land's than it is to Brazil's. It is similarly unreasonable to create a dichotomy between Occidental and non-Occidental; Egypt's culture, for instance, has much greater affinities with Poland's than with Japan's. Such a dichotomy may be useful for some few purposes; but its oversimplification is tremendously dangerous if one is trying to build a world outlook.

Almost any example of the use of the words "Eastern" and "Oriental" will illustrate the dangers involved, whether it be, as in a recently popular book on strategy, in an argument for ignoring Japan: or in general characterizations such as "Oriental seclusion of women" (does that apply to China more than to Europe?); "Oriental weariness of life" (has no-one ever heard of Mohammed?); or any other "Oriental" traits. It is amazing to note how many people really believe that "East is East and West is West," and that they'll never meet. General Gordon and C. F. Andrews were not miracle men when they adapted themselves to China or India; they were just carrying on a little further the process by which an American artist can become "more Parisian than Paris." The difficulty of an American or Frenchman understanding India is only in degree greater than that of an American understanding France.

Therefore, the need is not just to point out that "the East is just as good as we are"; it is to get rid of the idea that the "East" is one cultural entity complementary to that of Europe at all. Hence we should among other things: (1) refuse to refer to this or that characteristic as "Eastern"—even when a careful study has shown this to be true of all "Eastern" lands and of no "Western" lands (a rare situation)—because of the danger of supporting the idea that the Occident is coordinate with the sum of all the "East"; (2) avoid all use of the terms "Eastern" and "Orient" as ambiguous, and use instead Far Eastern, Indian, Near Eastern, African, Chinese, etc.; (3) be exceedingly careful in the use of the terms "Western," "Occidental," etc.; (4) stop talking about the "incomprehensibility of the East," and refer if necessary instead to the "incomprehensibility of cultures other than one's own."

The third type of phrase which I hope we will avoid is that which speaks of Europe—or of the most direct predecessors of European culture—as always being "in the center of the stage of world history." Thus, I have seen a chart of history, with dates across the top; bars in the space below running parallel to the dates, arranged to show "the length of time a people is important in history"; and dots preceding and following the bars "to remind us that these lands were still inhabited before and after they were the center of the stage." Egypt and Babylonia start out in the upper left-hand corner, become after

500 B.C. rows of dots extending to the present. Further down and to the right come the Hebrew and the Greeks, then Rome, then still further down and to the right, a double bar of the Moslem and medieval European cultures, and in the lower right hand corner the modern West. Since the lands east of the Indus form more than half of the Old World's population, if the "center of the stage" is to be placed with any one group, how does it manage to be west of the Indus at all? It is more reasonable to say that *Europe* "was isolated from the main stream of history" than to say that *India* was.

Actually, of course, the chart is deliberately invented to illustrate what the author thinks is the "slow march westward of civilization"—a fiction which has proved useful to some American nationalists. The unsoundness of the impression it makes can be shown by pointing out that the Moslem civilization which it graciously ranks coordinate with the medieval European is really found in the same lands as the Babylonian and ancient Egyptian (still shown as dots on this chart) and therefore does not, as the chart tries to imply, continue the "march to the west."

The impudence of such a chart is amazing. Except for Greece, which on the map looks more Near Eastern than European, and whose ties have always until the last century been eastward rather than westward, Europe can be said to have produced very little of world importance before the late Middle Ages; until then there is not the slightest trace of civilization's moving west. Even vaunted Rome depended on Egypt and the eastern Mediterranean not only for her wheat, but for her teachers and models. The largest and richest cities of the Empire were in the east, where civilization had always been, and it was there that the bulk of science and culture continued to be produced.

The reason for this chart, however, is easier to understand than its impudence. When we have studied history, we have always studied whatever culture was farthest west—nearest to our northwestern Europe. Thus when Greece comes into the light, we

switch our whole attention to Greece—and then are surprised when under Hellenism, lands other than Greece have a great deal to contribute. Meanwhile Italy having begun to be civilized, we switch our attention thither, never returning east of the Adriatic again, but rather turning as fast as possible to the forests of Britain, Gaul, and Germany (and are again amazed at the time of the Crusades to find that the east is better developed than they).

When Christian culture west of the Adriatic shows itself to be slow in getting started in spite of its bit of brilliance at the beginning, we decide that a dark age has fallen over the whole world! We even develop the crust to claim that a chieftain who tries to overcome local difficulties is the chief character in the world, in the age of Geber at Bagdad, and the T'ang dynasty in China! Charlemagne himself knew better.

In order to avoid encouraging the idea that "Babylon, then Greece, then Rome, then northwestern Europe have occupied the center of the stage of history," historians should among other things: (1) stop talking about the "known world," as that expression is usually used—known to provincial Europe; (2) stop talking about Rome's being "mistress of the civilized world"—or of "her world," since the ordinary person will not get the difference subtly admitted between these phrases; (3) stop talking about the fall of the Roman Empire, when only the loss of three or four western provinces is meant—remember that Rome was in the hands of the Empire centuries after the traditional A.D. 476, as was most of the west Mediterranean coast up to the Moslem invasion; and (4) stop talking about the Dark Ages as if they were a period of world history.

There are many other points at which we must avoid encouraging our provincialism; but I hope we will note at least these in writing or in teaching. My fundamental hope remains that someone will undertake to write a real world history, giving us a perspective view of ourselves, an undistorted framework into which to fit our own civilization and times.

Revised Historical Viewpoints

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LOUISIANA SESSION¹

In the years before the outbreak of the Seven Years' War and during its course, France offered

Spain several inducements to become her ally against England. However, while Spain saw the threat to her Empire if there were a complete defeat of France, she was not anxious to engage in war. She tried to gain various advantages without it by bargaining her neutral position with England up to 1761.

¹ Arthur S. Aiton, "The Diplomacy of the Louisiana Cession," *American Historical Review*, XXXVI (July 1931), 701-720.

Until 1760 Minorca was the chief prize which France held out to Spain as the price of her military aid. To incite Spain to war France played up the possibility of an English attack on Louisiana were the French to lose it. On the other hand a typical Spanish manoeuvre to exact advantages from France was the closing in 1760 of Havana to French vessels. In the ensuing negotiations the Spanish king spoke of the desirability of the French ceding all Louisiana. Choiseul, the French minister, declared that Spain sought her own advantage without any intention of helping France, citing Spain's refusal of a loan and the demand of title to three neutral West Indian islands. Despite this pessimistic attitude Choiseul renewed his efforts for Spanish military aid following the loss of Canada and the death of Spain's peace-loving Queen in October 1760.

In the ensuing months of conversations, King Charles committed himself to the plan of union with France. Spain wanted to settle the question of the boundaries of Louisiana so as to delimit French expansion into Texas and Mexico. She also wanted Mobile and New Orleans excluded from the eastern boundaries of Louisiana so that in time of war neither France nor England would have them as bases to prey upon Spain's Mexican commerce. These concessions were advanced by Spain as her price for yielding her claims to Louisiana. On the other hand, Spain offered to wage war on England in return for the cession of Louisiana. As an alternate inducement to cession as a price of war aid, Spain offered a considerable financial loan.

When the act of union was signed on August 15, 1761, nothing in it was said about Louisiana even though Spain did agree to a large loan and her entry into the war in May 1762. Throughout 1761, to induce Spain's earlier entrance, Choiseul offered to cede Louisiana and advanced also the alternate proposition to make the cession in return for a larger war loan. Spain countered by declaring it could do neither until the large silver fleet had arrived safely. Meanwhile, during 1760, despite the Queen's hostility to the French, Spain secretly aided France with loans of 150,000 piasters monthly, which after February 1761 were increased to 600,000 piasters. This was done through the banker de la Borde of Bayonne. When the silver fleet arrived in September 1761, France obtained a loan of 900,000 piasters to be repaid in instalments at 5 per cent in the last six months of 1762. But, as Spain professed inability to hasten her war entry and as the loan was smaller than asked, Louisiana was not ceded.

Further diplomatic negotiations were altered by England's declaration of war on Spain on January 2, 1762, ending all discussion of Louisiana as a "war bribe" or as a reward for a loan. Meanwhile, France

undertook secret negotiations with England for peace which in March were openly revealed to Spain as something new. France had become anxious to end the war as Russia had quit, making it impossible to defeat Prussia, particularly since Austria too was anxious for peace. Spain replied that the war had just begun for her and that she expected to conquer Portugal, but however, for the sake of her ally she graciously consented to peace negotiations.

Choiseul and Lord Bute agreed on a deal by which Guadeloupe and Martinique would be returned to France and St. Lucia also yielded to her as a naval base in return for Canada and English control of the Gulf region and the right to navigate the Mississippi. Choiseul artfully drew the boundary and the channel of the Mississippi so as to keep New Orleans out of British hands. While Spain objected and hesitated about these terms, the English captured Havana. Spain wished to fight on. To propitiate that country and to end the war, France offered definitely to cede Louisiana to Spain. The latter agreed to peace on this condition preferring to lose the Floridas to having the British in Louisiana. Peace was signed on November 23, 1762 and Louisiana was ceded the same day. Spain was slow to occupy it, not doing so until March 1766. Her authority was not definitely established until 1769, when a revolt, begun in 1768, was crushed.

Louisiana thus was ceded as a peace bribe, to maintain a close Bourbon alliance. Choiseul however made it appear as an impulsive generous offer rather than a cold calculated policy in French national interest. The English had been willing only to cede St. Lucia as a French naval base to protect her Caribbean commerce in return for the Floridas and the right to navigate the Mississippi. To counter this loss to Spain in power and prestige, Louisiana was offered as compensation.

JEFFERSON AND THE MISSISSIPPI QUESTION²

For many years before his Presidency, Jefferson had attempted a systematic policy of securing the unrestricted use of the Mississippi for American commerce. Restrictions had originated in the Treaty of Paris of 1763 by which Spain gained control of the Mississippi. Jefferson early had much accurate knowledge of the cis-Mississippi Valley region as his *Notes on Virginia* indicate. Some of it may have been acquired from his father who was a speculator in western lands.

In 1779, as governor of Virginia, Jefferson wrote the Spanish governor of Louisiana for an arrangement of free admission to the Gulf of Mexico point-

² W. Edwin Hemphill, "The Jeffersonian Background of the Louisiana Purchase," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXII (September 1935), 177-190.

ing out that growing western migration predicated growing trade which would benefit the Spanish. Spain, however, for fifteen years continued to place duties on goods sent to New Orleans for deposit or storage for later ocean transport. While ambassador to France, 1784-1789, Jefferson formed the opinion that international unrest only would afford the opportunity of securing the free use of the Mississippi. He denounced Jay's proposal to Gardoqui in 1785 to surrender claims for Mississippi privileges in return for general commercial privileges elsewhere. In 1788 Jefferson advised westerners to withhold pressing their claims until Europe would be at war again. Earlier, in 1786, he wrote Archibald Stuart that the west should leave Louisiana and the Floridas in Spain's feeble hands until its population increased enough to permit us to gain control.

As Secretary of State, in 1790 he proposed to Carmichael, special agent to Spain, that the United States would guarantee Spanish claims west of the Mississippi in return for the cession of the Floridas and New Orleans. He hinted that westerners might precipitate a war against Spain. He suggested to the French that the cession of New Orleans might keep the United States neutral. Throughout 1791-1792 without ceasing, he pressed American claims for the use of a port at or near New Orleans free of duty. He declared in a letter to a westerner that he was waiting for the favorable day "when the nail could be driven farther" advantageously. He temporarily acquiesced to Genet's plan for an expedition against

Louisiana before learning of his intentions to stir westerners to revolt. Jefferson thought that Genet's expedition had as its object the freeing of Louisiana from Spain and the granting of its independence and not conquering it for France. An expedition, he hoped, freeing Louisiana as independent would give the United States possession of the Floridas and New Orleans.

In November, 1793, Gardoqui proposed that we ally ourselves with Spain in return for the free use of the Mississippi, but neither Washington nor Jefferson would agree. In 1794, after his resignation as Secretary of State, Jefferson was asked to go as special envoy to Spain. On his declination, Pinckney was sent and negotiated his famous treaty. Free commerce on the Mississippi prevailed until the French acquired Louisiana from Spain in the secret Treaty of San Ildefonso. Jefferson learned of this cession in May 1801. In October 1802 Spanish officials at New Orleans suspended the right of deposit. Earlier, in April 1802, Jefferson had written Livingston, our minister at Paris, that we would not tolerate France, a strong power, at New Orleans. He hinted at seizing it in the event of a European war and suggested that to avoid this possibility France might wish to cede New Orleans and the Floridas.

Thus when we acquired New Orleans through the Louisiana Purchase it was not a fortuitous circumstance but the consummation of two decades of American and Jeffersonian diplomacy.

Interesting Approaches to American History

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Today, more than ever before, we as American history teachers have an important job to do. It can be an extremely interesting job at the same time if we will "fit" our history to the needs and aptitudes of our students. This is not difficult to do and we can enjoy doing it.

The study of American history, especially in war time, need not and should not be a dull and lifeless part of the curriculum. Instead, it should be exciting and stimulating in order that the student might secure as much as possible from this important subject. There are, I believe, three methods by which we can make the subject attractive to our students:

(1) Teach current history together with the his-

tory of the past.

(2) Utilize the agencies outside of the school that can be of help.

(3) Organize the work on some sort of a unit-assignment plan.

There are, undoubtedly, many other methods that can and are being used. I have found these three to be especially successful.

The first suggestion is not as trite as it seems. Some history teachers are simply not teaching current events. This is unfortunate because the enthusiasm and interest that can be aroused by a good discussion on world affairs is almost unlimited. About 90 per cent of high school students today are interested

in the war and want to discuss it in class. You'll find that they usually know what they are talking about. Why not let them tell about it? If possible, link up the discussion of current events with the study of the past by deriving historical principles from the past and applying them to the present, by relating the campaigns of the present to those of the past, etc.

The American history teacher can get more help from outside the school than probably any other teacher. There are many outside agencies that are ready, willing, and able to help the teacher do a better job of teaching. It is not difficult to get outside aid.

Moving pictures offer one of the best opportunities in this field. Most pupils enjoy movies and will be eager for this way to learn. Standard theatre pictures can be readily utilized. Some of the war films that are now being produced and shorts like *The March of Time*, and *John Nesbitt's Passing Parade* are of value. The best use of movies is to be made right in the classroom where comment can be made on the film as it is being shown. Then discussion with the class should follow. These 16 mm. classroom films are excellent and can be secured either free of cost or at a very nominal fee. There are approximately 180 sources of free 16 mm. films in the country and probably an equal number of sources that rent films. Many standard films of a few years ago such as *Union Pacific*, *The Maid of Salem*, and others can be obtained on 16 mm. film from several commercial outlets.

Field trips can be made to places of historical interest. Here in New Jersey we are fortunate in being located between Philadelphia and New York. In these cities there can be found many places of educational interest that students enjoy seeing. High school principals often permit their teachers a day off to take their students on trips of this kind. The students will remember such a trip for a long time.

There are other things that one can do. If there are local historians or other suitable speakers in the vicinity, they can be invited to speak to the classes. Newspapers of a high class, magazines and the radio can be used to great advantage. Thus, there are many ways by which variety and interest can be brought to the classroom. Try them!

We have heard much in recent years about individual differences and how to provide for them. Many plans have been suggested but most of them have been so complicated that it has been impracticable for the average school to adopt them. However, there is one way by which we can "individualize" class instruction rather easily. This is by using a unit assignment, modified contract plan.

Here is a typical "contract":

Contract Number One

Given out—September 13, 1943

Due—September 24, 1943

Time—Two weeks

C Assignment

- (1) Make a list of ten problems that you think the country is facing today. Write at least 100 words on each. Use magazines, newspapers, and books as aids. Include at least one reference for each problem.
- (2) Make a list of magazines in the library that you think would be useful in studying current problems.

B Assignment

The C Assignment plus:

- (1) Read and write a report on one current article in each of three magazines.
- (2) Listen to and make a report on a radio program of current news interest (Radio Forum, etc.).
- (3) Make a list of the columnists in your newspaper. Enclose a clipping of one and summarize it in your own words.
- (4) Report on a current feature movie or short of news interest.

A Assignment

The C and B Assignments plus:

- (1) Make a survey of all radio commentators and programs of current interest (by station and time).
- (2) Read a chapter in a book on the war or post-war problems and write a report on it.

This plan has certain very definite advantages:

(1) It provides for individual differences. It is set up on three levels. The student chooses any one, depending on how much work he wants to do and what mark he desires to obtain. The basic C Assignment is required of all. If the student wants a better mark, he should choose the B Assignment. If he wants a still better mark, he should choose the A Assignment. The student actually marks himself! This assumes, of course, that the quality of his work is commensurate with the quantity of work that he does.

(2) The plan lends itself well to unit construction. A contract can be worked out for each unit in the course.

(3) The teacher is relieved of the necessity of making daily assignments.

This plan can be put into operation in classes as they are now organized. Homogeneous grouping is not necessary. The plan is simple in construction and effective in operation. It works!

Iraq, Land of the Nomad¹

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INTRODUCTION

Iraq is one of the oldest countries in the world and one of the youngest under its present government. It lies southeast of Turkey, east of Syria and Palestine, north of Arabia, and west of Iran. The country is about the size of the state of Montana, and its population in 1942 was estimated to be 5,000,000.

Iraq was formerly called Mesopotamia. Its history goes back 5,000 years, and it forms a strategic part of the great land ridge between Europe and the Orient.

Before World War I, Mesopotamia was a part of Turkey. After the war the state of Iraq was set up as a British mandate with an Arab chieftain as king. In 1932 Iraq became an independent state, a limited monarchy of the English type, with an elected legislature.

One's first impression of Iraq is generally not a favorable one; the country appears hot, dusty, and parched. In Bagdad, the capital city, one can see street merchants selling exactly the same kind of pottery as their ancestors sold at the time of the "Arabian Nights." Not far from there, one can see great dams and modern refineries equal to the best in America. Iraq's oil production, just prior to the outbreak of World War II, amounted to more than 30,000,000 barrels a year. Modern engineering methods are improving the country, yet side by side with this modern machinery, primitive refineries built 2,000 years ago are still in operation.

The people of Iraq differ greatly from those of the English-speaking countries in their dress, customs, and religious beliefs. The people of Iraq are reserved yet friendly; and the men of that nation, although they wear flowing robes and heavy beards, are among the most skillful fighters of the world. The native language of Iraq is Arabic. Many of the people speak French, Turkish, and German, for all of those nations have had considerable influence on the population of this country.

TOPOGRAPHY AND CLIMATE

Most of Iraq is desert country. It does not contain great sandy wastes like the Sahara in Africa, but the desert is covered with a thin scrub vegetation very much like our southwest area. The only water in this region comes from the water holes which are

jealously guarded. Water is more valuable than anything else in the desert, and it is more important to the Iraqis than money is to the American.

Iraq has two great rivers, the Tigris and the Euphrates. These two important rivers rise in the Kurdistan Mountains of Turkey which are to the north and west of Iraq. They flow through Iraq in parallel channels, joining near the Persian Gulf and emptying into that body of water. Along the banks of these two rivers live the great majority of the population of the country.

The Tigris can be navigated from the Persian Gulf almost to Bagdad, about half way across Iraq. The Euphrates is much too shallow for modern ships, and consequently does not play such an important part in the national life of the country as the Tigris. The Euphrates is, however, longer by approximately 650 miles flowing a distance of 1,800 miles while the Tigris is 1,150 miles in length.

Climatically, Iraq may be divided into two zones: the larger area in the plains to the south and a comparatively smaller area among the northern hills. Iraq can be one of the hottest places in the world. Most of the work is done between 6:00 a.m. and noon and perhaps for an hour or two in the early evening. The surprising part about the climate of the country is that the nights can be uncomfortably cool.

The climate of the plains is characterized by large daily and annual variations of temperature. The rate of evaporation is many times greater in the south than the annual rainfall, and this whole area would be desert but for the waters borne by the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers.

The warm summer weather commences about the fifteenth of April and ends during the early part of November. The summer months are largely rainless; and during the five cooler months of the year, the weather is largely unsettled with strong southeast winds, often of gale force, rain or dust storms, and fog and mist.

The annual rainfall of Iraq varies from about four inches in the south to about sixteen inches in the extreme north. Most of the precipitation occurs between the months of November and February.

The southern part of Iraq consists of a broad delta, and the elevation of the country in this section is extremely low. Bagdad, the largest and most important city of the country and located 500 miles from the Persian Gulf, is only 113 feet above sea level.

¹This is the second in a series of articles on the countries and peoples of Asia.

Because of the low gradient, both of the rivers have inadequate carrying power, and the channels of both are choked with silt. The low rate of flow and the low gradient permit irrigation to be carried out with a minimum of difficulty.

In view of the scarcity of rain in most of the sections of Iraq, cultivation is dependent upon irrigation activities. During olden times, the people of Iraq depended upon irrigation as much as the modern inhabitants. The Mongol invasions and the continuous occupations of Iraq by various peoples caused damage and neglect to the early irrigation system of the country. By the beginning of the twelfth century, Iraq had become a sparsely settled country with very little cultivation.

The modern irrigation of Iraq began in 1908 when the Ottoman government requested the famous English engineer, Sir William Willcocks, to survey the entire country and to recommend a program of irrigation. His report, printed in 1911, is now the basis for the irrigation system employed in this country.

AGRICULTURE

By far the date crop is the most important of Iraq's agricultural products. Iraq produces as many as 180 varieties of dates, and the area occupied by date trees is more than 500,000 acres of land. The giant crop is produced by 70,000,000 date trees, the average being 140 trees to an acre.

The date crop is picked about the first of September each year and is packed at packing stations which have been under strict government control since 1931. During the years of peace, the dates of Iraq were exported to all parts of the world. India, England, and America received the greatest amounts of this commodity before the outbreak of war, and Arabia, Algeria, Australia, New Zealand, Italy, and Belgium were also heavy consumers of this product. The great date-producing section of Iraq is located in the southern part of the country along the Shatt-al-Arab River.

Large quantities of various grains, chiefly barley and wheat are produced and some is exported during normal times. Rice, corn, tobacco, millet, and beans are produced in limited quantities.

Iraq is also a producer of cotton which is of high quality. German interest in the country has been largely instrumental in the development of the cotton crop because of the importance of cotton in modern warfare.

The Iraq government provides for a Directorate of Agricultural Affairs. He assists the inhabitants of the country in raising agricultural standards and in introducing practical reforms. Experimentation is now conducted on a large scale, and practical and scientific advice is widely disseminated.

The agricultural problem as well as the national life of this country is complicated by tribes of nomads who roam about at will. This group of people eke out a meager existence from the land. They generally confine their activities to the districts and regions where water is readily obtainable.

MINERAL DEPOSITS

The mineral deposits of Iraq are limited in number. The greatest product obtained from below the surface of the land of Iraq is oil. Prior to the outbreak of World War II, the annual production in Iraq exceeded 30,000,000 barrels a year. Because of the importance of oil in modern warfare, the production of this important fuel has been stepped up during the last four years. Iraq has not suffered from the ravages of war as have the countries of Europe and North Africa; its oil industry has not been damaged in any way. The country is now occupied by British forces, assisted in numerous ways by their allies, and the oil of this country is used to fuel the war machine of the United Nations. A great pipe line extends from Iraq to the Mediterranean. It runs from Kairku in the mountainous northern section of Iraq to Tripoli in Syria; another line extends from the former city to Haifa in Palestine.

The rocks of Iraq are almost wholly unmineralized sediments, but many are of the oil-bearing type; and the country has been estimated to be the third largest in the world in richness of crude oil resources.

Other mineral resources are, however, found and consist primarily of coal, sulphur, marble, gypsum, and limestone. Small amounts of copper, iron, mercury, chromium, and manganese have been found but no deposits of commercial size are known to exist within the boundaries of the country.

INDUSTRIES

When compared to the industrial production of Great Britain and the United States, modern industry, as we know it, is decidedly limited in Iraq. From ancient times, this country has been famous for the manufacture of various textiles; and the work of its goldsmiths and silversmiths is known throughout the world. Iraq has also been known for many years for the production of muslin.

Modern factories have taken the place of many of the small shops in which textiles were formerly produced. The machine-made textiles have largely superseded the hand-made products. One of the controlling factors in this shift has been the price of the machine-manufactured garment as compared to the cloth produced by hand. Another factor has been that much of the population has been influenced by European customs and manners and has become ac-

customed to and adopted European dress. A large portion of the cotton and woollen cloths manufactured in Iraq is manufactured in factories located at Kadhimain and this cloth is of high quality and compares favorably with imported European piece goods. Blankets and tapestries made from wool and cotton are also produced in many sections of Iraq.

During recent years, there has been a considerable development in the production of cigarettes. The cigarettes are of high quality, and they have been accepted in many of the European countries as readily as leading Turkish brands. The cigarette factories are located at Bagdad, Mosul, and Basra.

TRADE

During ancient times, Iraq was the center of an extensive and flourishing transit trade. Commodities arrived via the Persian Gulf on ships from India and were dispatched to Syria and Palestine where they found their way to other countries. The trade caravans traveled by two routes—the Euphrates route to Mitavia and Anatolia, and the desert route to Syria and Palestine. Alexander the Great was interested in the commerce of Iraq and he built a large port at Shatt-al-Arab and shipped supplies via the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. For many years, Iraq preserved its important commercial position; but when occupied by the Mongols, its importance rapidly declined and trade decreased. Before the outbreak of war in 1939, the three largest commercial centers of Iraq were Bagdad, Basra, and Mosul.

Bagdad was and still is the chief market of the country. It imports goods directly from abroad by the sea route to Basra and thence by river. Thereafter, they are transported to other Iraq cities by rail, trucks, donkeys, and camels.

Basra, the country's most important port and a city of about 70,000 people, was and still is the only Iraq port receiving goods from abroad. The city keeps for itself about one-fifth of the total imports, and these are distributed throughout the southern part of the country. The rest of the imports are sent by river to Bagdad. During normal years, Basra's trade runs into many millions of dollars.

Mosul occupies a favorite geographical position, for it connects Iraq with Turkey. It imports goods from Bagdad and then ships them on to northern Iran and Turkey.

Iraq trades heavily during normal years with Great Britain, Germany, Australia, Belgium, France, Russia, Sweden, China, and America. Having no ships worthy of crossing high seas and with only one important outlet on the Persian Gulf, the country has depended upon the vessels of other nations to export and import goods. Great Britain has furnished most of the tonnage space for the trade of Iraq; but

German, Russian, and Turkish vessels have figured in the trade of the country.

CURRENT ORIENTATION

During World War I, as well as World War II, Iraq has been occupied by the United Nations. This country occupies a tremendously important strategic position in the Middle East, and its oil resources are essential in modern warfare. German influence on this country was extensive during the period between 1919 and 1939, and it was essential that the country be occupied in order to provide a barrier against an Axis break-through to India.

During the winter of 1940-1941, the Middle East escaped war largely because of the British navy and the desire of Turkey to remain neutral. By the spring of 1941, however, conditions in the Near East became critical. Germany occupied Bulgaria; Greece and Crete were conquered by superior German forces; and bases were obtained for operations in the direction of the Middle East.

At this time, German strategy seemed aimed toward seizing both the Suez Canal and the oil fields of Iraq. A group of pro-Axis men under Premier Rashid Ali Beg Gailari seized power on April 4, 1941, assuming that Axis forces would break through and provide the necessary military backing to sustain the control they had obtained.

The British met this threat by increasing the strength of their garrison at Basra and moving in Spitfires and Lancasters in large numbers to the landing field at Habbania.

Iraqis troops on May 2, 1941 attempted to conquer the British stationed in Iraq but were defeated. The leader of the revolt fled to Iran, and the civil authorities at Bagdad asked for an armistice on May 31, 1941.

The German government, which had supported the uprising in Iraq, had flown in technicians and specialists to the country. The transports, bringing in the German technicians, refueled at air fields located in Syria; and the British began bombing these fields on May 17, 1941. Acting to forestall German occupation of Syria and Lebanon, British forces invaded these countries on June 7 and two weeks later had established a rigid military control over both. An armistice was signed with French authorities on July 14, 1941, and the British government obtained control for the duration.

The German invasion of Russia on June 22, 1941, offered a new threat to the Middle East; and the British continued to reinforce their garrisons in Iraq.

As the British Tenth Army stationed in Iraq increased in number, so did the supplies and equipment passing through the port of Basra toward Russia. British and American engineers rapidly de-

veloped larger supply, rail, and communication bases within the country. The development of transportation facilities was essential in order that goods might reach Russia. In 1940 Iraq had only 947 miles of railroad, 168 miles of railroad sidings, and 6,543 miles of adequate highways.

During the fighting in Iraq and Syria, General Wavell commanded the British forces in the Middle East. General Auchinleck succeeded Wavell in command in July 1941 and subsequently conducted the invasion of Iran. The next fifteen months of the war witnessed a reduction of the threat to the Middle East, but the possibility of a Japanese break-through from Burma by way of India was ever present.

During World War II, British support in Iraq has

come largely from the educated classes of people and a little from tribes of nomads. Uneducated classes generally have retained their pro-Axis sentiments. When General Rommel threatened to take Cairo and Alexandria, pro-Nazi officials in Iraq hoped for a restoration of power. In May 1942, the President of the United States declared the defense of Iraq vital to the United Nations, and the country became eligible for Lease-Lend supplies and equipment.

Although the country declared war on Germany on June 16, 1943, the Axis powers have repeatedly attempted to interrupt friendly relations between Iraq and the United Nations by means of radio propaganda and by the work of agents among the tribes of the nation.

The Concert of Europe—An Attempt at World Organization

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When Jap bombs rained destruction on Pearl Harbor the United States joined the many nations united in their battle against totalitarianism. This union of nations in all parts of the globe has brought about great interest in an international government as a means of securing world peace. Magazines, pamphlets, and books during the last two or three years have discussed the pros and cons of the subject. In view of all this it is interesting to see how well previous experiments in international government have worked.

The Concert of Europe of the early nineteenth century was one of the earliest endeavors on the part of nations to organize and maintain a central organization for keeping peace. It was fairly successful in the beginning but the confederation's struggle for unity ended in failure. It was formed at a meeting of the Allies at Chaumont in 1814 by an Alliance. This paper deals with the six Congresses from Chaumont through the Congress of Verona in 1822. Even though the confederation worked for years after 1822 this study is limited to that time because it was at Verona that England's withdrawal from the Alliance seriously weakened its effectiveness. The Concert no longer included Europe's most influential power. At these Congresses there were definite problems which with their solution show the Alliance's desperate struggle for unity.

In 1814 the Empire of Napoleon was crumbling and the time came when the Allies had to decide

their peace aims as well as unite the military front. Divergent aims were brought together by England's Viscount Castlereagh. He succeeded in forming a definite alliance at Chaumont. So many opposing demands made this a particularly difficult task. Most contentious among the problems was Russia's demand for Poland. As far as the Tsar was concerned the creation of a kingdom of Poland under Russia was settled.

Prince Metternich of Austria and Hardenburg of Prussia had already secretly agreed to unite to defeat Tsar Alexander I's plans for Poland in return for Austrian support of Prussian demands on Saxony. Castlereagh also agreed to this, for he distrusted Russia, and the agreement fitted his policy in two other particulars. He wanted a strong, united Prussia to help maintain the balance of power he was seeking and Castlereagh also wanted to keep Russia as far from Central Europe as possible.¹ Both sides were insistent in their claims, but by postponing the decision of the Polish question to a later Congress it was removed as a stumbling block to unity for the time being.

Other questions, too, threatened unity at Chaumont. There was the problem of the ruler of France after Napoleon's overthrow. Alexander favored the liberal general, Bernadotte. Metternich, opposed to all liberals, felt Austria would do just as well to

¹ C. K. Webster, *The Congress of Vienna, 1814-1815*, p. 34.

support Napoleon, the emperor's son-in-law as the military adventurer Bernadotte. This question, though, was left, according to Castlereagh's wishes, to be decided by future events in France itself. Disagreement arose over Britain's demands for a greater Holland. The other powers did not want to strengthen Holland, but Castlereagh did obtain its guarantee in the treaty signed at Chaumont. He had to pay dearly for it, though, as England's combined contribution money and men for the common defense was twice as large as that of each of the Continental powers. Other solutions made at Chaumont, such as agreement on their objects of an independent Switzerland, confederated Germany, and an Italy comprised of separate independent states, were undisputed.

Work done at Chaumont formed the foundation of all future unity of the Concert of Europe. According to the treaty made there the Alliance was to continue twenty years after war ceased and the powers were to protect one another against any attempt by France to upset the peace arrangements.² This guarantee was the reason for future Congresses. Here the powers had achieved unity as Philips says, "by eliminating all mention of the most contentious questions and scheduling certain others for future deliberation and settlement."³

The first meeting of the new Alliance was at Vienna to make the actual peace settlements. European powers had a huge task before them. Settling Europe after Napoleon's extensive conquests was no small job. Each power's demand for reparation in the way of someone else's territory did not make the work any easier. Satisfying everyone's claims and keeping the powers united was practically impossible. Russia demanded Poland, but Austria, Prussia, and England were reluctant to let her take over. Prussia wanted at least part of Saxony, and Austria, too, demanded compensation for her part in defeating Napoleon.

The "status quo" Napoleon had disrupted had to be reestablished in other countries, too, but the main settlements finally agreed to at Vienna were the reestablishment of the kingdom of Saxony, which renounced all claim to the Duchy of Warsaw and ceded part of her territory to Prussia; the retention of part of Eastern Galicia, as well as Venetia by Austria, in order to appease Austria's desire to strengthen her hold in Italy; Prussia's surrender of a part of Poland, and her retention of the Grand Duchy of Posen, plus compensation in Swedish Pomerania, and two-fifths of Saxony. The powers also agreed to a constitution for Poland as a kingdom under the Tsar.⁴ Based on the policy of expediency

these settlements kept the union of Europe from breaking. Keeping the balance of power was the main objective, with each state striving to keep the other from obtaining too much power and demanding as much as possible for itself.

Besides these and other minor territorial settlements the rulers and plenipotentiaries gathered at Vienna settled other world problems such as that of international rivers, slave trade, and French rule. Very valuable for future generations was their rulings on free navigation of international rivers. The work of making these arrangements was left to this Congress by the first Treaty of Paris signed in May, 1814.

According to this treaty they were to consider details for giving effect to the stipulation for free navigation of the Rhine and the extension of this privilege to other rivers. The principles they settled on were freedom of navigation to everyone throughout the entire navigable course subject to police regulations, a uniform system of collecting duties, regulation of tariffs with a view to the encouragement of trade and navigation, and repairs of towing paths to be made by each riverain state. There was to be no port or forced harbor dues. The Rhine, Neckar, Marne, Moselle, Meuse, and Scheldt were the international rivers.⁵

Another problem they agreed on was that of the slave trade. Britain insisted on abolishing it. The governments represented at Vienna agreed to its abolition in principle, but practical considerations kept all but Britain from doing anything about it. Events following the meeting at Chaumont led the powers to agree to the restoration of the Bourbon, Louis XVIII, according to Talleyrand's principle of legitimacy which he used so skillfully at Vienna.⁶ These were the major problems and the solutions recorded in the Final Act of the Congress of Vienna.

At this Congress European powers were drawn closer together in an attempt to avoid future wars. All were weary of conflict. Great Britain had closer connections with Europe than ever before because of this. Even at this early stage in the struggle for unity the territorial settlements showed the fundamental weakness of the Alliance. On the demand of stronger powers conflicting nationalities were joined, such as Norway and Sweden, Holland and Belgium. Wishes of smaller states were completely disrespected.⁷ It was done for the sake of unity among the great powers who could fill the obligations of the Alliance, but it created definite discontent and future rifts because of the smaller powers.

² *Ibid.*, p. 31.

³ E. J. Knapton, "Some Aspects of the Bourbon Restoration of 1814," *Journal of Modern History*, VI, 407.

⁴ H. W. V. Temperley, and L. Penson, *Foundations of British Foreign Policy*, p. 136.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 32.

⁶ W. A. Philips, *Confederation of Europe*, p. 73.

⁷ A. H. Oakes, *Great European Treaties of the Nineteenth Century*, p. 30.

The arrangements for international rivers made Europe more united, opening rivers to use by all nations. These as well as the other solutions of Vienna united Europe temporarily, while laying the foundations for future disagreements.

At the next Congress at Aix-la-Chapelle the powers held their first meeting in peace time. This was as provided in the treaties signed at Chaumont and Vienna. The main reason for this Congress was to decide what should be done about France. The army of occupation was still there in 1818 when Europe's great powers assembled. The French king and all the political parties were demanding the removal of the Duke of Wellington and his men. There would be more danger from France by not removing them. So Britain and her allies decided on evacuation in November if security were given for pecuniary claims against France.⁸ The payments "amounted in all to 265 million francs of which 165 million were guaranteed by Alexander Baring and the financial house of Hope, while one hundred millions were allowed to be given in French funds at the price of the day. France saved 15 millions by this deal."⁹

Then arose the question as to whether France should be admitted to the Alliance.

By October, 1818, the powers had decided secretly against her membership. The four allies were to invite her to take part only in the reunions proposed by Article VI of the treaty of Alliance. These solutions took care of the relations between the four great powers with the fifth against which they were allied.

The problem that caused the greatest difficulties at Aix-la-Chapelle and foreshadowed the future break was that of determining the exact nature of the Alliance. Tsar Alexander wanted it to bind all the powers of Europe, "in a common league guaranteeing to each other the existing order of things in thrones as well as in territories."¹⁰ This would extend the alliance to interference in internal affairs of nations, a policy absolutely opposed by Castlereagh. It was against the old British policy of non-intervention in internal affairs on which she would not compromise.

In subsequent eloquent speeches Castlereagh pointed out the absurdity of some states judging how far internal changes in another state are legal or salutary and showed that the treaties did not bind the allies to interfere even in France unless their own safety was threatened.¹¹ Castlereagh was victorious in keeping his country unpledged except to the specific obligations accepted at Vienna and Paris. Where

Alexander had his way the objectionable phrases imposed no obligations. For the time being the struggle to keep unity was successful. The powers had agreed on a satisfactory solution to the problem of France, and the difficult problem of what obligations the Alliance implied was smoothed over.

Castlereagh had achieved his goal without breaking with the Alliance. The situation, nevertheless, made manifest the existence of internal differences. Britain would possibly have withdrawn from the Alliance, if the Tsar had forced the issue. This very important matter was settled temporarily at this peacetime Congress.

The issue of intervention was forced to a head, though, by the revolutions of 1820, particularly by the uprising of liberals in Naples. The Neapolitan revolution threatened the Austrian system in Italy, as the king of the Two Sicilies was forced to accept the Spanish constitution of 1812. Metternich representing autocratic Austria wanted to use the Confederation of Europe to suppress all such outbreaks of liberalism. The Tsar, too, was converted to extreme anti-liberalism realizing that revolution abroad gave bad example to growing liberal tendencies at home. Prussia, autocratic also, followed Metternich's plans.

In relation to this problem of intervention two factors added to the difficulties. Since the revolution in Spain did not affect Austria's power, Prince Metternich was not interested in it. Putting down the revolutionaries in Naples was his main interest. The Tsar complicated matters by his dream of a Universal Union as well as his refusal to segregate the Neapolitan question. As Metternich put it, he insisted on mixing it with the Spanish revolution: "As though General Quiroga would be defeated in the person of General Pepe, and never to speak of July 6th without dragging in March 8th was to create difficulties which were foreign to the matter at hand."¹²

This fusion of the two was not foreign to Alexander's plan though, for he wanted desperately to start his Universal Union working all over Europe. Britain's policy was the great stumbling block. Castlereagh did not go to this third Congress at Troppau, nor did Britain send any plenipotentiary. Lord Stewart attended only as an observer without any power except to report the proceedings to his government. Neither did France send a plenipotentiary. All Austria wanted at the time was the moral support of the Alliance which these two constitutional monarchies refused to give for fear of being involved in another war. The British policy of non-intervention in internal affairs of other nations could not be broken. Metternich tried to win France and Britain by mini-

⁸ C. K. Webster, *Foreign Policy of Castlereagh 1815-1822*, p. 135.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 145.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 148.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 150.

¹² W. A. Phillips, *Confederation of Europe*, p. 199.

mizing the effects because any public protest on their part would defeat his purpose.¹³

The Protocol of Troppau had consecrated the policy of intervention in these words: "States which have undergone a change of government due to revolution, the results of which threaten other states, *ipso facto* cease to be members of the European Alliance, and remain excluded from it until their situation gives guarantees for legal order and stability. If owing to such alterations immediate danger threatens other states, the Powers bind themselves by peaceful means, or, if need be, by arms to bring back the guilty state into the bosom of the great Alliance."¹⁴

It had been signed by Austria, Russia, and Prussia before it was even submitted to Britain and France, but after these two powers refused to sign, the other signatures were withdrawn with the explanation that the Protocol was to be regarded as a draft. Further attempts were made to obtain agreement at least to the underlying principles. Castlereagh smashed all hope of success in a masterly criticism sent to Stewart on December 16, 1820.¹⁵ This was the first definite sign of a breach in the Alliance. As well as Castlereagh realized the need and value of a union of Europe he could not consent to anything involving intervention in internal affairs. The ultimate separation of the Alliance began at Troppau. All action was postponed to be decided at a conference at Laibach the following year. So the rift was kept from becoming actual by procrastination.

Early in 1821 the three allies convened at Laibach with France and Britain as onlookers. On January 19 Castlereagh issued his famous circular of dissent, denouncing internal intervention in vigorous terms. In March the Austrian army overthrew the Neapolitan Constitution, entering Naples on the twenty-fourth. It was not Austria's suppression of the Naples movement to which he objected; he felt she had the right by treaty to suppress disturbances in Italy. What he and all England objected to were the general, foolish, ultra circulars of the Tsar.¹⁶ The principle which led ultimately to the break in the alliance continued to widen the breach. Austria, Russia, and Prussia felt that the treaties of alliance gave them the right to intervene even in the internal affairs of Europe, while Britain denied any such interpretation.

Two other European questions arose to test further the confederation of Europe. They were the Eastern question and the Spanish problem. In March, 1821, the *Question d' Orient* suddenly came into prominence with the uprising of the Greeks against the Turks. It was not a democratic revolt or demand for

a constitution, but a movement by Greek Christians to overthrow an abominable alien tyrant. Metternich, however, felt it was as much a danger to monarchy as the revolts in Italy. Alexander wanted to declare war on the Turks to help his co-religionists in Greece.

To prevent any action by the Tsar, fearing the threat of possible Russian supremacy in the Mediterranean to British commercial interests, as well as the danger to European unity, Castlereagh met Metternich, patched up the difficulties and agreed to summon another Congress to prevent any action against Turkey and protect the integrity of the Sultan.¹⁷ Continued uprisings in Spain to which royalist France greatly objected made the Spanish question increasingly interesting. France wanted to intervene to suppress revolution and avenge the insults to the Bourbons. England would not see Spain or any of her colonies go to France. France tried to obtain the approval of the Concert at Laibach. No specific solution was found for either of these problems. Postponement to a Congress in the near future was again the temporizing solution.

This problem, though, did have a definite effect on the unity within the Alliance. Britain and France were still opposed to the other three powers on the question of intervention in Italy, while England and Austria were united in opposition to the Russian attitude on the Eastern question. France and England disagreed on the problem of Spain. On the whole, Laibach was the scene of many changes in alliances within the rapidly disintegrating Concert of Europe.

The practical solution of the problems all involving intervention was left to the Congress summoned for the autumn of 1822 at Verona. Castlereagh (who died in August) and Metternich had agreed that this Congress was the only possible way of stopping Alexander from going to war with Turkey. Austria insisted on maintaining the integrity of the Turkish monarch to protect all monarchy from liberalistic tendencies. All Metternich's diplomacy was used to postpone and quiet the intolerable *Question d' Orient*.¹⁸ Those assembled at Verona, however, soon became more intent on affairs in Spain than in Greece. France asked the support of the Alliance in an attack on Spain to put down the increasing disturbances. On October 30, 1822, Wellington communicated to the Congress the instructions of the new Foreign Minister, Canning. They stated on the Spanish question:

If, as I see reason to apprehend, in the late communications both from Paris and Vienna, there is entertained by the Allies a determined

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 209.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 208-209.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 210.

¹⁶ H. W. V. Temperley, *Foreign Policy of Canning*, p. 24.

¹⁷ A. J. Grant, and H. W. V. Temperley, *Europe in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries*, pp. 182-183.

¹⁸ D. Grant, and E. Montstuart, *Studies in European Politics*, p. 145.

project of interference by force or by menace, in the present struggle in Spain, so convinced are His Majesty's government of the uselessness and danger of any such interference—so objectionable does it appear to them in principle and so utterly impractical in execution—that, if necessity should arise or (as I would rather say) if the opportunity should offer, I am to instruct your Grace at once frankly and peremptorily to declare that to any such interference come what may, His Majesty will not be a party.¹⁹

He had delivered a bombshell. Russia had agreed to go all the way to help France, even to supplying troops, while Austria and Prussia promised all moral support but would not commit themselves to giving material aid.²⁰ Wellington's message kept the Alliance from acting with France. She was forced to take separate action which she did in April, 1823, invading Spain, rescuing Ferdinand, and abolishing the Spanish constitution.²¹ Britain also refused to intervene in making Italian settlements as Austria wanted.

Canning's policy disrupted the Alliance. British commercial interests in Spain and her colonies were at stake and could not be sacrificed. Her interests in the New World were also ignored in France's attempt to restore the Bourbons to Spain. England maintained her policy of non-intervention to the end.

At Verona the Alliance definitely broke. As one writer says: "The adoption of the principle of intervention by the four powers led to Wellington's formal withdrawal from the Conferences."²² The confederation no longer had the unified strength of Europe behind it to promote peace. It had grown away from its original purpose and the struggle for unity ended in failure. England's withdrawal left a definitely weakened group still struggling. The decision whether or not action was to be taken could be postponed no longer. So the rift which had threatened since 1820 became a fact.

The few years before England broke away had been a particularly desperate struggle to keep even surface unity for the Concert of Europe. This whole experiment in international government was one battle from beginning to end to get the powers to

work together. Whether an international government would take such an effort to keep working today and using its power for peace is anyone's guess.

It seems that we could learn a few lessons from this Concert which did bring peace to the world for a time. If these men had let Christian principles dominate their actions, as we hope to have them dominate the coming peace settlement, perhaps the struggle would have been easier and more successful. We who have made such progress in science and industry to help man should profit from the mistakes as well as the advances of this nineteenth century experiment in international unity.

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¹⁹ H. W. V. Temperley, *Foreign Policy of Canning*, pp. 64-65.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 66-67.

²¹ A. J. Grant, and H. W. V. Temperley, *Europe in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Century*, p. 183.

²² W. A. Philips, *Confederation of Europe*, p. 258.

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It has been recognized for a long time that our local historical societies have much material which may be used with great profit in teaching history. Teachers have realized this, but only in isolated instances have they made full use of these resources. The reason is not difficult to see. Most historical societies are rather small affairs (at least as compared with our public school systems), with limited staffs, and are often open for only short periods. Their materials often have been inadequately displayed, and their libraries have been useable for only a limited group. A small number of their members, genealogists and local historians, have utilized library collections.

All of this is natural enough, and in no sense is a condemnation, but it may account for the feeling of aloofness which teachers and pupils have experienced. And if teachers and pupils have been reluctant to breach this barrier, the historical societies have often lacked the initiative to do so. Recently, however, there has been a revived interest in local history, and many historical societies have taken on new life, have shown a new spirit of usefulness, and have enlarged their educational programs. It may be of interest and value to see how one such institution has approached the problem of aiding the teaching of history in the schools.

The Historical Society of Berks County, Reading, Pennsylvania, is one of the largest local historical societies in Pennsylvania, blessed with a fine modern building, excellent library and museum collections, and a strong supporting membership. For nine years it has published a semi-popular magazine, instead of the usual annual volumes of papers, so often associated with such societies. Its quarters are large

enough to encourage the visits of school classes, and some teachers and their classes have taken advantage of this opportunity. Yet the city and county are large, their school systems with their thousands of teachers and children dwarf the Historical Society, and only a



SCHOOL LOAN KIT

Objects illustrating early methods of lighting are shown (left to right): a package of "spunks," candle mould, candle stick, frame used in making candles by dipping, glass whale oil lamp, a candle snuffer, a Betty lamp, and a tin-pierced lantern (Paul Revere Lantern). These materials, with a descriptive booklet, are neatly packed in the case shown in the photograph, and are offered by the School Loan Service for classroom use. Approximately fifteen such kits on various subjects have been prepared, and are now a part of the School Loan Collection.

small proportion have really learned of the society and its work. While all children study history and the social studies, only a few have visited the historical museum. Nevertheless, a new and energetic curator felt that this was one of the most important services which the society could render the community. And if the mountain would not come to Mahomet, Mahomet would go to the mountain.

With this in mind, the curator prepared from museum materials several School Loan Kits. These were collections of smaller articles (of which there were generally a number of duplicates) taken from the museum collection, and fitted into a small case which could be carried by the teacher to the classroom. Each kit illustrated some subject of study, and was accompanied by an explanatory booklet. Some of the subjects treated were: early methods of lighting, colonial kitchen utensils, early money, flax preparation, and cobblers tools. Through these kits, pupils were able to see and handle genuine museum articles in their classes. Thus teachers were better able, through concrete illustration, to teach about early American life.



DOWER CHEST

Photo by Guiley Finch

Another method of visual illustration was the use of slides for projection. The Historical Society had in its files many old and rare pictures. These were of little use to the general public, however, except as they constituted an historical record, or were drawn on by researchers, or for illustration in our magazine. Through diligent work of selection and photo-



Photo by Guiley Finch

TEN-PLATE STOVE

graphic reproduction of these pictures by our photographic committee, there were composed several sets of slides, which were used by the curator in lectures to various civic groups. Some of the topics treated were: Old Houses, Covered Bridges, Our Community in the Nation's Wars, and Contributions of the Pennsylvania Dutch. A recently completed lecture, with beautiful slides in color, depicts Pennsylvania German Barn Signs. These slides were also made available to schools with adequate projection equipment, but usually required the presence of one of the Society's staff, who was prepared to explain them.

Finally, an effort was made to make the society's quarterly magazine more useful to teachers in the schools, and perhaps even attractive to children. In connection with a special number devoted to a new museum acquisition—the WPA museum project-built "Model of Penn Square"—there was presented a fictional episode for children, an anecdote of President Washington's visit to Reading in 1793. This was set in primer type (similar to that used for textbooks in the grades), and was illustrated by pen and ink sketches by a local artist. This was an experiment, but it elicited much favorable comment.

Next the society, like many another organization, sponsored contests for high school students. In spite of the fact that a number of such projects had a priority in the crowded program of the schools, and there was an in-

clination on the part of teachers and administrators to look askance at more such projects (indeed, there has been a tendency to use the contest as a promotional device for organizations and commercial firms), these contests did arouse some interest in the society, and served as a liaison with the schools. An art contest produced two excellent cover designs for our magazine; and an essay contest on "What Our School Has Done to Help Win the War" resulted in two essays being printed in a special "Education and the War" number. To interest teachers further, we printed book reviews of new texts in Pennsylvania history and editorials treating the moot question of American history in the schools.

Eventually there emerged from these several activities the project for special visual aids for the schools, expressly prepared for that purpose, and published by the Historical Society. As so often happens in such projects, the idea came from an incident which suggested the need. There was relayed to us the request of a grade teacher for a picture of a Franklin stove to show her class. There was such a picture in one of the back numbers of our magazine. Why could not such pictures be made readily available for use in the classroom? We have preserved most of the halftone cuts used in our magazine, and their historical importance has enabled us to withhold them from the scrap metal pile. Now these could be utilized in printing plates for classroom illustration. If there were sufficient interest in the subjects, the sale of the reprints would cover the cost



A FRANKLIN STOVE

of printing. The cost of making special cuts would have rendered the sale price so high as to be prohibitive.

A committee of school teachers associated with the society was formed to pass on the suitability of topics and the available illustrations. All who had the project explained to them were enthusiastic. Thus two sets of eight plates each ($8\frac{1}{2} \times 11\frac{1}{2}$), enclosed in a specially printed envelope with suggestions for teachers, were prepared. One dealt with "Early Iron Manufacture," and included illustrations of a local iron furnace of Revolutionary times, a forge, a trip-hammer, an early cast iron stove plate with its primitive relief illustration, a portrait of an ironmaster, three cuts illustrating stoves, and two of some artistic casting. A brief text with each plate explained the process of manufacture, or the nature of the illustration.

A second series of eight plates dealt with "Pennsylvania German Folk Art," which recently has received much attention in our schools. In this series there were shown a bookplate in tempera, a taufschein (birth certificate), a sampler, hymn book illustration, tombstone carvings, and designs on barns, dower chest and pottery. A teacher of art wrote the text, which suggested some of the symbolism of these designs.

At the present writing these "Visual Aids for Schools" have had an enthusiastic reception. They have been sold at a very nominal price—to cover cost of printing only—and it has been suggested that not only teachers, but also pupils, may wish to own them. They can be conveniently filed, and can be used with an opaque projector; by punching holes they may be made a part of a loose-leaf notebook. Sets covering several other topics have been suggested, and may be prepared in the near future. Among other topics for which there appears to be satisfactory illustrative material are Early American Travel, Early Homes and Living Conditions, and Early Leaders of Pennsylvania. Several ends appear to be served by this project. The historical society has found a new field of usefulness and has won new friends. Valuable illustrative material has been made available to the schools, and the study of our social history has been aided. Local history, too, has been served, for these illustrate locally movements of national or statewide importance. We are sanguine, too, in our belief that these products of a county historical society's educational program may prove equally useful to teachers in other parts of the country. And, finally there is the hope that a small contribution has been made toward a greater interest in history, and more effective teaching.

Try This New Testing Program

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The whistle blows . . . the game is on. Everyone is tense—not the tension of fear that grips so many students before the usual formal tests, but that of eagerness, of excitement, of thrilling expectation.

Testing has become an obnoxious phase of the learning activity from the viewpoint of the student; yet in his leisure time at home the ordinary individual takes great pleasure in solving cross-word puzzles and participating in quiz programs. This vast difference in attitudes can be explained when we realize that the time and effort devoted to preparing for and taking a test in a school subject is usually given as a result of compulsion; there is no self-motivation; and the quiz is often not adapted to the interest or ability of the child.

Teachers everywhere have been asking themselves what new means of evaluation can be devised which will not be distasteful to the students. Doctors W. Harry Snyder and Edwin C. Fulcomer, Heads of the Social Studies and English departments respectively of the New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair, have for three years successfully employed a

scheme in their ninth grade class in Western Culture at the Demonstration High School on the college campus. Working on the assumption that students are most interested in doing that which is closest to their everyday lives, these professors present their review and test at the completion of the first unit of work in the form of a football game.

The class first elects two captains who in turn select their teams. The choice of captain may be rather unusual. They may have greatly contrasting personalities—on one hand a brilliant outstanding lad with a vast wealth of knowledge and a fine sense of leadership—on the other, a shy, immature youngster selected merely as a prank by the group. Little do they realize how great a service they render to the second child. He acquires self confidence and a real feeling of responsibility and accomplishment.

Every attempt is made to give the "game" as realistic a flavor as possible. The room is transformed into the College High Coliseum with one-half of the class as the Fighting Phantom Gauchos seated around a table on one side of the room and the Pan-Ameri-

can Panthers on the other. An extremely colorful diagram of a football field on the blackboard is used by the scorekeeper to trace the advance and retreat of the ball. A timekeeper keeps careful watch of the fifteen minute periods and allows thirty seconds for each question. As in a regular game of football only three time-outs are permitted per period. These can be called by the captains only for the purpose of debating the adequacy of the opposing team's answer or for any other reasonable cause. The professors determine the correctness or incorrectness of each response. Their decision is final. The entire team is penalized ten yards if any team member calls out without being recognized through the captain. This measure emphasizes self-control, group discipline, and eliminates any threat of disorder.

Each question is evaluated in yards according to its difficulty, varying from ten yards for the most difficult to one yard for the easiest. The team carries the ball until one of its players fumbles (answers incorrectly) when the ball or questioning reverts to the opposing team. The students pick the questions out of a box carried by the referee. The questions which are incorrectly answered are replaced in the box and often come up again. It is interesting to note that the question is very seldom failed a second time.

The fifteen minute quarters are spread over four days in order that the students may have the opportunity to look up and correct those questions which they missed and so that neither over-tension nor monotony takes hold of the participants. Each is imbued with a team spirit—one of cooperation and desire to do his utmost to see that his is the victorious group. The selfish motive of answering correctly to get a high grade for himself is not present. There is also an opportunity for increased learning to take place by the student hearing answers he himself perhaps could not answer. He also learns how to use reference books while delving for information required to respond intelligently.

Preparations for the game are made long in ad-

vance. At least three weeks before the captains call numerous meetings. At these meetings the captains and team members drill each other on the content they consider vital. Such long range studying eliminates most of the last minute individual cramming.

This heartily recommends the experiment. However, if subjective reactions are desired, other techniques must be used because for this type of game, all questions are, of necessity, objective. They require only one word answers or a very brief statement. There is no opportunity for individual expression and no need for deep thought. Quick, mechanical thinking is necessary. In addition, each person answers approximately three questions each quarter; therefore his chance at failure or success is determined for a large part by his good or bad fortune in selecting questions from the box.

Although the teachers experimented with a slightly above average group, this game would be enjoyed equally well by an average or even slow individual. In fact it may appeal more to the retarded pupils because it involves pretense and playing while unconsciously learning and studying. Also the teacher or the students may act as officials if impartial outsiders are not available. If the game becomes a tradition, it is possible to have upper classmen who participated in this event in previous years to fulfill these positions. It is best to use the football game technique only up to the tenth grade. Those in higher classes may feel themselves too mature for such "child's play." For those teachers who still feel the need for individual written tests, this "football" game may serve as an excellent means of a preliminary review and drill.

The success of this experiment along with others of the same nature that may be used equally well, may mark the turning of the tide for the testing programs of the school. No longer will students cringe at the word "test," for here are techniques of evaluation suited to their ability both pleasant and painless.

Make History Teaching Come to Life!

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What is the proper way of teaching history?

There are, after all, two methods—the unimaginative method that stresses dates and places and "facts," and considers the personnel of the period under discussion as if they had lived and loved and died only to keep a history instructor flourishing long afterwards. This is then one method—that stresses the dates of Alexander's battles and neglects to describe the scene when the tired blitz-krieger is listening to

the warnings of captive Indian priests. This is the method that says, Gustavus Adolphus died in 1632 on the battlefield of Lutzen, and at the same time neglects the realities of the man's life and of his contribution to contemporary politics. Gustavus Adolphus was, by no means, after all, the fanatical puritan that some publicists and shade-preferring historians have made him out to be. The State Papers of the period show us a shrewd level headed man,

well aware of the strategic value of militant Protestantism, and still flexible enough, still enough of a believer in Realpolitik, to collaborate with Cardinal Richelieu. The Cardinal was anxious to distract and even seriously embarrass Austria; Gustavus wanted to expand Sweden's sphere of influence and did not mind doing it at the expense of Catholic Austria. Politics dominated religion, and while Protestantism was certainly an important factor in the Thirty Years' War, politics, economic and social necessities actually dominated the backstage of the period. Gustavus' ally Richelieu was *not* a Protestant Cardinal. . . .

There are then the two methods of teaching history. Take one, and dead people stay dead. Take the other, and dead people live again! Flesh and blood figures walk the pages of history as flesh and blood figures walked the corridors of yesterday. Dead schemers become more than names—the Hitlers, the appeasers, of their day, become more than just the names that school-children must recite and know by rote.

Take for example Louis XI. Was this man the blood-thirsty tyrant of the average history, possessing avenues of trees on whose branches hung the rotting corpses of long dead opponents? Or is he to be regarded as a man who worked, earnestly and in the long run unsuccessfully, in an attempt to crush the power of a nobility whose anarchism was making a mockery of the kingship of France? Is Charles the Bold to be regarded as an early edition of the energetic Mr. John L. Lewis, or Boston's revolutionary leader Samuel Adams, or as a pure and stainless—though perhaps a little over-impulsive—Knight in Shining Armor?

That is the question! I pose these points with no particular intention in mind except to stress that history is more than facts dragooned out on a blackboard, memorized by rote, and recited with pain. History is the record of life that was lived—not recited by rote. Rienzi's death is not a date; it is a living vivid dramatic human fact. Caesar's assassination was not simply the killing of an unpopular leader, or something to be remembered from English literature classes. It was a carefully planned conspiracy, of fifth column dimensions, worthy of E. Phillips Oppenheim at his best.

I had a certain amount of practical experience of all this, myself, while lecturing on Near Eastern and Chinese Art with the neighborhood exhibits of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, during the winter of 1939-1940. I had to "sell" the Exhibition to the schools where it was sent, organize my own schedule, and be prepared to take on as much as I could or would. In practice this meant that a student would hear me in his Latin class, in his Spanish or French class, in his medieval history class, in his modern

history, his economic geography, his English, as well as art classes. The Moslems, after all, did get around a bit during the past 1300 years, so there appeared to me to be some justification for having other than art classes come to see the Exhibition.

I soon discovered that a map was necessary; one was found, and I began my "lecture" by making sure that the students knew where the Near East was located. All this was of course before our entry into the war. In certain instances this excursion into geography would take as much time as to explain to some veteran of thirty years of teaching experience that while it was quite true, nobody had discussed the heathen Moslems in 1908, this was not 1908 now . . .

I would tell the Latin class how much Roman law and jurisprudence influenced early Islam. I would talk to the Spanish class about the influence of the Moors on Spain's and Europe's history, comment on the Spanish Moorish art included in the exhibit, tell something of the life and times of the period when the pieces had been made, show how students had come from distant Poland and England to study in the famed Moslem universities and had eventually returned with wagonloads (actually) of precious manuscripts and papers.

I would tell English classes about Persian and Indian literature, and perhaps read to them or let them read poems by medieval Moslem poets. To different art classes I would stress a different aspect of Islamic art. Still it was never possible to do more than barely touch the surface of the subject. But there, as at all times, I was frankly more interested in stressing the fact that the artist in a town in Mesopotamia that had been razed to the ground by the Mongols in the thirteenth century had been very much alive, very much made of flesh and blood, and very much a part of the pattern—social and political—of his times.

Just as, for example, one cannot isolate the silver-smith Paul Revere from Paul Revere the Revolutionary patriot, he cannot tell about the Christian craftsmen who contributed ideas and art forms to eighth and ninth century Near Eastern art without explaining how these men came to be where they were and how they worked and under what conditions. Simply to mention a fact is to reduce history to inanity; but to explain a fact, is to make history live as it should live!

This, then, is my personal "philosophy" of teaching history. The pages of history are thronged with living vivid human people, men, women, rulers and the ruled. Today above all, when we ourselves *live* history, it is important to make these figures return to life. Perhaps then, aided by that further knowledge, some of us will realize, with Walt Whitman, that: "We have not come through centuries, caste, heroisms, fables, to halt in this land today!"

The Importance of International Law in Our Thinking Today

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World War II has catapulted the peoples of the globe into a seething caldron of destruction. This deadly conflict has been superimposed on the unsolved situations of rapid means of transportation, economic division of labor and internationalism. Thus has been added one more problem to the complexities of this universe.

This deliberated, scientific, mechanized, large scale production of warfare, has broken down all boundaries in both Europe and Asia. This is the policy of totalitarianism. And therein lies a story upon which Americans should ponder. For it has to do with that clause in the United States Constitution, Article I, Section 8, Paragraph 10, which says that the United States Congress shall have the power "to define and punish . . . offenses against the law of nations. . . ."

Now this law of nations, if it is to exist, must be based on three premises. Without them it is worthless. They are: independent states may treat freely with one another; a code of private and public international law should be provided that is clear and definite; and last but not least, there should be a desire to observe this code of international law because by common consent and reason it is found more expedient to do so.

A study of history will prove that international law only thrives where there are independent states, that is, sovereign political units who may negotiate, unimpeded with one another. Roman law, canonical law, feudal law, common law and equity, the maritime codes of the Italian City States and the Hanseatic League all acted as unifying forces. Thus the idea of the equality of state powers so necessary to the development of international comity, was discouraged. But this was not the case in the days of Greece, nor is it true in modern times.

Due to the independence of her colonies, Greece recognized the existence of these and other independent states, and entered into relations with them. This tended to develop crude forms of international law, such as diplomatic and consular services, alliances and maritime code, a fragment of which survives today in the form of our present doctrine of jettison. In the modern era which began with the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, there was the recognition of sovereign states in the family of nations.

Hence from that time to the present there has grown up a body of international law.

This modern era may be divided into two periods. The first is fruitful in the treatises of the jurists, of whom Hugo Grotius was the greatest; and the second is productive of the direct action of a state or states, of which the United States has ever been the foremost. From the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, which marked the end of the first period, to the Congress of Vienna, which began the second period, there was a century in which the juridical principles propounded during the seventeenth century, were not only expanded, but became the embryos of the international practices of sovereign states in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

In this latter development the United States took the first step in the codification of the laws of war. For in 1863 there was issued, by order of President Abraham Lincoln, a book entitled, *Instructions for the Government of the Armies of the United States in the Field*, which had been written by Francis Lieber. It was so comprehensive and accurate that it has been used as a basis for such codes ever since.

The United States was also the first nation to attempt to codify the laws of peace. This was done at the Second International Conference of American Republics, which met in Mexico City in 1901. There the American Secretary of State, John Hay, suggested that the peace of the Western Hemisphere be kept through the arbitration of American differences. As a result there was a resolution which since has been carried out, to codify both public and private international law as it applied to Pan America.

This leads to the second premise. International law must be made clear and definite. This must be done in three ways. First, by introducing into the code new rules which economic, political and social circumstances have made necessary. Such is the provision for the "freezing of credits" of neutral nations, which was practised for the first time in the history of the world, when the United States did so when Germany invaded Denmark, Norway and Holland in World War II.

Second, by declaring null and void, outmoded rules. This was done in the Declaration of Paris, 1856, which stated in Section 1, that "Privateering is, and remains, abolished." Therefore, that which

was considered necessary in the fifteenth century, was discarded in the nineteenth. In this category are the former regulations treating of contraband. Zones of warfare have abolished, absolutely such kinds of goods, for in war zones today, all goods are liable to capture.

Third, that certain existing rules should be amended. Thus they might be made usable. In the past, the rules of war have been so clarified. For example in the Hague Conferences of 1899 and 1907, and the other international conferences of the twentieth century. The rules of neutrality need such clarification today.

This brings forth the third premise. International law to be effective must be binding. In other words, if civilization is to survive, states must learn to live, in the post war period, in a society of nations where there is law and order. They must be made to realize that public welfare must take precedence over the individual nation when the two come into conflict. They must be made to appreciate the fact that it is preferable to receive reciprocal action from other nations as benefits derived, rather than as economic and military reprisals because of infractions of the law.

In other words, the society of nations, comprised of independent nations who may treat freely with one another in this post war period, must consider whether they desire to substitute civil law for military order within their own organization. This in turn, presupposes adjudication through a world court and correction through an international police force. Both come within the grasp of the government of the United States through the aforesaid mentioned clause in the United States Constitution which provides the United States Congress with the power "... to define and punish ... offenses against the law of nations."

To be sure since 1919, when it was provided for under Article XIV of the Covenant of the League of Nations, there was made provision for an International Court of Justice, to which the United States has been a party since 1924. It has not been able to function properly or there would be no World War II brought about by the totalitarianism of the Axis powers. But it must be remembered that the original courts of common law in England and the Western judge and his court in the pioneer regions of the United States did not at first succeed. Trial by ordeal or shooting from the hip existed side by side with the formerly mentioned institutions, respectively. Then men saw the advantage of judicial trial, and today the court is used, exclusively, in civil and criminal cases, by all civilized peoples for the adjudication of their differences within their own territorial limits. So some day war may be vanquished for all times, as a means for the settlement of disputes, because man is, in the long run, a reasoning entity.

If the world, in the post war period, is to live under a civil code of international law, and such is the trend of thought at the present time, there must be a civil police force to bring recalcitrant nations before the bar of justice. Its purpose should be to bring civil rule to the world of the future, not a military regime. Such a transition did England make within her own administrative area, when she introduced the English police force into British life in the early part of the eighteenth century. Robert Peel, the minister who introduced this police force to the English, made it known that it was a civil police force to enforce civil law, so that law and order and British civil rights might be preserved in England.

What has been done, can be done again. Perhaps, by such thinking, in the future, there may be derived an American concept of international law.

What Shall We Teach in Ninth Grade Civics?

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Our democracy is on trial today—not only in a military sense but economically and politically. To meet this challenge, training for citizenship must be recognized as the most vital task of our schools. We must realize that it is necessary to train our students as thoroughly and deliberately for citizenship as we train them for vocational skills and knowledge. Our schools are also on trial today; can we produce in-

telligent, thoughtful citizens who will actively participate in civic affairs? On the outcome of our trial depends the future of our democracy.

In proposing a course for ninth grade civics, I am making an assumption regarding the social studies curriculum. I am proposing that ninth grade social studies be devoted to a study of government and community civics, and I am assuming that twelfth

grade social studies is a course devoted to contemporary problems, of political, social, and economic nature, that necessitate a previous knowledge of political organization and functioning.

It is necessary to state the objectives of the civics course so that we may then proceed to decide the best way to accomplish these aims. The first objective is to teach the structure and function of our local, state, and national governments; but with this teaching of the idealistic framework of our government, we must constantly point out the realistic workings of it. It is here that we have too often failed in the past; we have failed to prepare our students to cope with the realistic practices of our political institutions. The textbook must be supplemented by the teacher's knowledge to bridge this gap.

Our second objective is to teach the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship, with our emphasis on the latter. As Wilson points out in the *Regents' Inquiry Report*, pupils are as reluctant as adults to assume responsibility for group welfare. We must show that democracy depends on each individual assuming responsibility for intelligent control and use of instruments of political power and public opinion. This necessitates study of the power and limitations of the press, radio, political organizations, and pressure groups. We must teach the importance of public opinion and how it is formed; we must point out the importance of political parties and how the individual must contribute to them. Our students must realize that civic responsibility does not begin and end on election day. We must train our students in the responsibilities of selecting leaders, and intelligently and constructively criticizing their leadership.

The third objective in our teaching of government should be to point up the trends in the present, such as the necessity for greater responsibility in international cooperation, the problems of our new economic organizations, larger needs for public welfare, increasing centralization of our government, and the growth of bureaucracy. By studying these trends we can see the problems that confront our government now and in the future.

To accomplish these objectives, I am proposing the following course of study. In working out the content of the course, the teacher has to supplement greatly the text, for most of the texts in the field I have found to be inadequate. The course should include, in the same order, a study of parliamentary procedure, school government, community resources and government, and state and national governments. Now let us go into detail in each of these topics.

Parliamentary procedure is an excellent "jumping-off" place because it is fundamental to democratic practice, and it is a necessary tool for pupils to have for their student government. This topic should

include study and practice in the conducting of meetings, order of business, various kinds of motions, committees, reports, parliamentary courtesies, misuse of parliamentary rules, and evaluation and selection of officers. In the actual practice of model meetings and elections, the class has the opportunity of becoming acquainted.

From this beginning, we next study our own school government. We study the constitution of our student government and in this way we are introduced to the form and contents of a constitution. Our school rules and their sources are studied, and we discuss the purposes of these regulations. Lastly we discuss the duties we have as school citizens in our elections, in obeying and enforcing rules, and in the right way of initiating any necessary changes. In our school situation we thus can learn the principles of good citizenship and good government, and we put these principles into practice through our school and home room governments. In our study of local and national governments we can draw on the fundamental principles we have learned.

The next topic, and the focal point of the year's work, is a study of our local community. The local community is the point of departure for problems of the state, nation, and world. The local community offers instances of every fundamental process and it furnishes a laboratory of materials. In studying the community, the student sees social-civic processes close at hand, and he sees the necessity for the individual to act for the welfare of others. Above all, study of the community affords opportunity for apprenticeship in participation in community living. We can thus combine information with chance for constructive action, and our students will be better citizens and have more interest in local affairs.

Study of the local community should be planned so that all of its resources are utilized and a variety of study techniques are applied. An understanding of the economic and social resources of the community is necessary so that the political aspects can be seen in their proper light. The teacher should make an extensive inventory of the community herself before deciding on the techniques to be used. These techniques should include field trips and interviews either by the entire class, committees, or individuals. In this type of work it is easy to plan for individual differences. Practice in compiling information, making reports, preparing charts, and many other techniques can be acquired.

The community study should begin with a survey of its history and physical setting. The students can locate this material from sources suggested by the teacher. They will be more intelligent members of their community if they know the reasons for its growth and the influences of the geographical setting.

The class would then be ready to study the com-

munity's resources and activities. Each of the resources should be analyzed for its functions, adequacy and governmental control. The following resources might well be studied:

Health	Public schools
Garbage and rubbish disposal	College
Water	Public Utilities
Sewage	Water
Health board	Gas
Health agencies	Electricity
School health program	Transportation
Protection	Telephone
Fire department	Telegraph
Police department	Recreation
Religion	Banking
Library	Stores
Newspaper	Manufacturing
Radio Station	Farming
Education	Local politics and government

Through the study of local government and politics, we can work to accomplish many of our objectives of citizenship. We should teach the structure of our community government and then have the children see for themselves its realistic functions by attending council meetings, talking to council members and adult citizens, reading the local paper, and following local elections. We can usually find examples in our near-by communities of good and bad governments, machines in power, lack of issues in elections, disinterest in elections, graft and patronage, unselfish civic leaders giving of their own time with no thanks, and work and organization of political parties. Our students will be interested because these events are close to them and influence their lives; we must utilize this interest so that we will produce citizens who are anxious to improve local conditions. We must point out that state and national governments and politics have the same problems and practices as we find in local affairs.

To study and analyze our community is not enough; for the best educational value we must have some cooperative community activity in which all the boys and girls can engage. As many educators have said, education must be in connection with real life. So it is necessary that our students should do some worthwhile, constructive community activity that will benefit the community and provide reality, significance, and a challenge to the student.

There are several criteria that must be kept in mind in regard to the projects to be undertaken. The project must have educational value to the individual and significant value to the community. Its social significance must be sensed by the children. The students should help plan the activity, carry it through

to successful conclusion, and accept full responsibility for its outcome.

What kind of community activity can we engage in? Each community has many needs, and the war has magnified these needs. Paul R. Hanna, in his book *Youth Serves the Community* (New York: D. Appleton-Century Company), has made an exhaustive survey of projects already being carried out by children. Many of these activities have resulted in improvement of the community. The following projects are taken from his book.

Youth contributes to safety—

1. School boy patrol of streets
2. Investigate violations of fire laws and drive to correct these conditions

Youth contributes to civic beauty—

1. Take part in school by working on landscaping
2. Take part in community by making a tree census, working on empty lots, crusading against insects

Youth contributes to community health—

1. Write letters complaining about bad sanitation conditions to city council
2. Campaign to discover smoke nuisance and act to have it removed

Youth contributes to agricultural and industrial improvements—

1. Community welfare garden project
2. Educational campaigns of scientific farming.

Youth contributes to civic arts—

1. Orchestra for both pupils and parents
2. Campaign for facilities needed

Local history, surveys, inventories—

1. Surveys of community opinions and facts
2. Historical guide book of community
3. Survey of juvenile delinquency

This intensive work in the community is followed by a study of state government. This work should include a knowledge of the powers of state government and a noting of the trend on the part of the national government to take over some of these powers. The state constitution should be noted only for the type of material contained in it. The executive branch should be studied, emphasizing the powers of the governor and the work of the various executive departments. The General Assembly and examples of its legislative activities should be known, and the state courts and their jurisdiction should be noted.

To make this study of the state more vital, the class should get from newspapers current information on activities of the governor, of the General Assembly if it is in session, and of the work of the executive departments. State revenue and expenses might well be noted since our states have so fre-

quently been guilty of reckless spending. Voting requirements, election procedures, campaign issues, and the urgent need for intelligent interest in state politics should be stressed. We must do all we can to make our study of state government vital because our states should be ready to assume more responsibility in the post-war period.

Lastly, our course includes a study of national government, and this work should be as functional and realistic as possible. We should begin with a study of the Constitution; the children should know the general contents of the articles and the amendments. This should be followed by a study of Congress, emphasizing the legislative procedure, influence of lobbies and pressure groups, logrolling, committees, rule of seniority, and executive influence.

The executive branch should be studied for the powers of the President, the way the President is elected, the present status of the cabinet, the work of the departments, the creation, work, and supervision of agencies and bureaus. We should study the judicial branch of government emphasizing the jurisdiction of the various courts and the function of the Supreme Court. The fundamental principle of "checks and balances" should be thoroughly understood.

This analysis of the structure of our national government is not enough; we must study our gov-

ernment in action. First we must study public opinion and the way it is formed. Our students should know, from past events, how important public opinion is; they should know how to use the instruments of power available to citizens; and they must know how to select leaders and evaluate their work.

The problems and powers of the press and radio and the work of selfish interest groups ought to be studied and discussed. Current trends, such as the rapid growth of bureaucracy, centralization of power in the national government, problem of cartels, and the issue of international cooperation after the war, should be analyzed through current newspaper and magazine articles.

The work of political parties and the necessity for individuals to take an active part in them should be stressed. Plans to improve Congress ought to be examined. In all of this work we must be constructive in our approach, and we must emphasize the extreme importance of having intelligent citizens during this era of trial.

This is my plan for a ninth grade civics course. It is a difficult task to do well because it demands a great deal of planning, information, and enthusiasm on the part of the teacher. But it is of vital importance that we do our best because so much depends on our results.

Visual and Other Aids

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During recent years the schools of the United States have become increasingly conservation minded. Such courses as biology, general science, social science, and vocational agriculture now frequently include units in conservation of natural resources. It is impossible to tell as yet which department will ultimately be given full responsibility for conservation education in the school. Perhaps the responsibility will remain divided. It appears likely, however, that social science teachers will handle a considerable portion of the conservation program.

Since conservation education is relatively new as a topic for formal study, its aims, methods, and organization in the curriculum are subject to widely divergent practices and the entire field is as yet in what might be termed an unsettled state. In most cases pupils get their conservation education in small doses from a unit here and there in various subjects. However, some schools have inaugurated

semester courses which deal exclusively with the conservation of natural resources. This would seem to be in line with the trend toward inclusion in the curriculum of subjects which deal directly with current problems of a practical nature.

Conservation education, to be effective, must rely heavily on outside aids. One reason for this is that adequate text material is not yet available. Another reason is that many communities have their own particular conservation problem (such as wind erosion in the dry plains states, timber waste in the forested states, and so forth), to which cut-and-dried text material does not lend itself. In the case of such communities, teachers can concentrate as much effort as they wish on a particular conservation problem so long as they have sufficient films or pamphlet materials available.

Fortunately, there are already a considerable number of aids available in the field of conservation

education and the writer looks for a great deal more when the schools have become still more conservation conscious.

Probably the most active agency in the production and distribution of films on conservation has been the United States Department of Agriculture. USDA films have had a wide distribution and may be secured from most state film libraries or other local distributors. Teachers who can not secure USDA films from these sources should write for information from the Office of Motion Pictures, United States Department of Agriculture. All these films are on 16 mm. film, most of them in sound, and occasionally in color. A partial list of USDA films follows:

The River. 31 minutes. The story of the Mississippi, rated one of the most outstanding documentaries ever to be produced.

There's More Than Timber in Trees. 33 minutes, in color. Portrays lumbering during last century and points out need for better planning in utilization of forests.

Your American Tragedy. 3 minutes. Causes of forest fires.

Tree of Life. 25 minutes. Depletion of forests through wasteful lumbering practices.

Trees to Tame the Wind. 13 minutes. The use of trees as windbreaks.

Harvests for Tomorrow. 30 minutes. A documentary film on soil conservation having a setting in New England.

Blessings of Grass. 22 minutes. Soil conservation.

Muddy Waters. 12 minutes. Soil erosion by water.

Rain on the Plains. 8 minutes. Soil erosion by wind and water.

Terracing in the Northeast. 11 minutes. How terracing is being used to prevent erosion in northeastern United States.

Strength of the Hills. 10 minutes. Conservation of soil, forests, and wildlife.

Big Game and the National Forests. One reel. Wildlife conservation.

Forest Fires or Game. One reel. Destruction of wildlife by fire.

There have been a number of valuable films on conservation produced by organizations other than the USDA. *Trees for Tomorrow* is a widely-circulated film portraying methods used by forest management in conserving lumber for future needs. It is on sound films and runs for 18 minutes. *Trees for Tomorrow* can be secured from most distributors, including state libraries. Teachers who can not get the film from these sources can get it from Castle Distributors Corporation, Field Building, 135 South LaSalle Street, Chicago 3, Illinois.

Another conservation film which has been rated excellent is entitled *Heritage We Guard*. This is a 30-minute sound film produced in 1940 by the Soil Conservation Service. It is available from a number of state libraries and private distributors. Bell and Howell Company, 1801-1815 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, will rent the film for \$2.00.

Another widely distributed film dealing with water power and forest, soil and mineral conservation is *Conservation of Natural Resources*. This is a 10-minute sound film, and can be procured from most state libraries. If teachers can not secure the film locally, they should write to Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1841 Broadway, New York 23, New York.

The Land, a 40-minute sound film depicting soil erosion, is another that has received a rating of excellent. This film was originally distributed by the Museum of Modern Art Film Library, 11 West 53rd Street, New York City, but is now available from a number of sources. If teachers can not obtain the film locally, they should write to the above organization.

The Tennessee Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tennessee, produced and now distributes a 20-minute sound film entitled *TVA* which depicts the work and accomplishments of the TVA after seven years of operation. This film has been popular among educators and can now be obtained from most state libraries. Teachers can also borrow the film by writing direct to the Tennessee Valley Authority.

Turning our attention from films to pamphlet materials, the United States Department of Agriculture is again one of the most profuse sources. Teachers should write for a complete list of USDA publications. The writer has used some of the USDA pamphlets on forestry and has found them excellent. They are abundantly illustrated with high-quality photographs and the text is clear and concise. Some of the titles are:

New Forest Frontiers (Misc. Pub. No. 414). 30 cents.

What Forests Give, by Martha B. Bruere. 15 cents.

Taming Our Forests, by Martha B. Bruere. 15 cents.

Arbor Day (Farmers' Bulletin No. 1492). 10 cents.

Community Forests, by Nelson C. Brown. 10 cents.

State Forests for Public Use (Misc. Pub. No. 373). 10 cents.

The Work of the U.S. Forest Service (Misc. Pub. No. 290). 10 cents.

The Tennessee Valley Authority, in cooperation with the land grant colleges and universities of the Tennessee Valley and the United States Department

of Agriculture, has published several pamphlets which may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. Two of these which should be excellent for teaching purposes are *Soil: The Nation's Basic Heritage* (20 cents) and *Forests and Human Welfare*.

A booklet entitled *Conservation Excursions*, by Effie G. Bathurst (Bulletin 1939 No. 13) discusses the use of field trips in connection with conservation education. It appears quite well done and should prove highly useful. This booklet was sponsored by the Federal Security Agency of the United States Office of Education and may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents for 15 cents.

The Ohio Division of Conservation and Natural

Resources, Columbus, Ohio, has prepared two booklets especially for the use of teachers who are teaching units or courses in conservation. These booklets contain a great deal of factual material on conservation as well as practical suggestions for teaching. They are the best thing of their kind that the writer has seen. The larger of the booklets contains 144 pages, and sells for 50 cents. It is entitled *Conservation for Tomorrow's America*. The smaller booklet is entitled *The Teacher Looks at Conservation*. It may be purchased for 25 cents.

The Agricultural Extension Service, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, has available for distribution a booklet on the care of the farm woodlot entitled *Woodland Management* (Bulletin 213).

News and Comment

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WORLD ORGANIZATION

"... the human race ... is confronted by the gravest crisis in all its experience and ... we who are here on the scene of action at this critical time have the responsibility of saying what way the world is going for fifty years to come." These solemn words spoken at Dumbarton Oaks by Secretary Hull voice the thoughts of many sober-minded persons. With war's end in sight they debate more feverishly plans for world organization. They seem resolved to avoid the mistake made by the last generation in rejecting such organization and are not waiting until peace is upon us to begin serious study of postwar plans.

An overall view of the varieties of their conclusions is presented in *Foreign Policy Reports* for August 15 where Vera M. Dean analyzes outstanding "U. S. Plans for World Organization." They divide, it seems to Mrs. Dean, into two schools. In the one school are those envisaging the formation of a world organization at once while the pressures of war favor the birth of a concrete plan; and in the other are those that would defer such organization until the shape of the world emerges more distinctly from the shadows of tomorrow. Mrs. Dean suggests that it will be a long time before that shape is definite and stable, whereas world conditions demanding international cooperation are immediate and importunate.

Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Churchill apparently favor delay. They would devise means to assure peace first and come to grips with the problems of international organization afterwards. Such also seems to be Wal-

ter Lippmann's view. His "nuclear alliance" of the four major Allied powers for the preservation of peace would be the first step, and not the formation of a general international organization. At the same time these men, like other responsible leaders, approve of the inclusion as soon as feasible, of smaller nations on a responsible central body and the creation of an international council and assembly. Paramount among the problems are those of national sovereignty and the control of military force. The variety of views about them reflects the difficulties. Mrs. Dean took pains particularly to outline President Roosevelt's expressed ideas on the entire matter.

In an appendix to the presentation, O.K. D. Ringwood assembled "Selected Documents on World Organization," including the Mackinac Conference Report, the Fulbright and Connally resolutions, Secretary Hull's enumeration of the bases of American foreign policy, and the foreign policy planks in the platforms of the two major parties. Mrs. Dean referred to an outstanding document, *A Design for a Charter of the General International Organization* (the GIO), which is commented upon in the Book Review Department.

To the democracies the problem of national sovereignty, which includes the principle of national self-determination, poses a dilemma. For it is not inconceivable that some nations may establish autocratic governments when peace comes, thus again threatening the safety of democracy. Professor Karl Loewenstein of Amherst College examined this

dilemma in an article, "The Trojan Horse," in *The Nation* for August 26. He offers historical evidence to show that the people of modern nations have never voluntarily chosen to set up an autocratic government. Autocracy, on the contrary, has always been imposed upon them by the machinations of the Napoleons and Hitlers. President Roosevelt has said the same thing: "No nation . . . that is free to make a choice is going to set itself up under the Fascist . . . or the Nazi form of government. Such forms of government are the offspring of seizure of power followed by the abridgment of freedom."

It would really be an abuse of the principle of self-determination of nations if the victors in this war, by a hands-off policy, permitted a minority group to impose an authoritarian form of government upon a people. The true application of the third article of the Atlantic Charter, which provides that every people has the right to choose its form of government, requires the Allied powers to make sure that no minority prevents the truly free expression of an entire nation regarding its form of government.

Professor Loewenstein suggests that, in the armistice or treaty, the Allied powers make provision obliging the defeated nations to elect a Constituent Assembly for devising a democratic form of government. An inter-Allied Constitutional Control Commission should be the "watchdog" to see that such a constitution is made and is ratified in a really free election. If the people in such an election, however, will not ratify a democratic constitution made by their own representatives they should be controlled by the Allied nations until they have advanced sufficiently to desire it.

There are many questions which must be answered correctly in any successful plan for world organization. Clark M. Eichelberger, widely known for his work in the cause of international organization, took stock of them in discussing factors in "Prefabricating the Peace," in an article in the *Survey Graphic* for September. He is a leader in several associations devoted to that cause, notably the Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, of which he is the director.

Mr. Eichelberger accepts the startling, underlying concept of the Charter of the General International Organization: the GIO "would at all times comprise all existing States, hence 'no provision should be made for the expulsion or withdrawal of any State.'" With every nation nowadays within the reach of bombing planes in a matter of hours, the time is past when a nation can decide for itself to join or resign from such an organization or decide whether to abide or violate the international rules insuring the security of all. The central organization must control military forces, on instant call to prevent aggression. Parliamentary debate about the use of

force to stop aggression can no longer precede action. In the present war, several nations independent for centuries lost their independence within two days. The details of the organization and control of this international force are matters to be worked out in the interest of the general welfare.

At least a tentative, working world-organization should be set up very soon in order to be on hand to deal with the pressing international problems of the peace which is now near. However, unless the United States takes the lead such an organization may not be established and, beyond a doubt, mankind will as a result face the prospect of another great war, for neither the last one nor this one has destroyed the seeds of war.

Mr. Eichelberger recently published a pamphlet for the Commission to Study the Organization of Peace in which he describes at length the practical steps to take in launching a general world organization. This pamphlet, *Time Has Come for Action*, is also reviewed briefly in connection with *A Design for a Charter of the General International Organization* in the Book Review Department of this issue.

CURRENT PROBLEMS

Several articles in *Fortune* for September discuss current events and problems. "The War Inventory" describes the complications to be faced in disposing of surplus war goods when peace comes.

"The Explosive Middle East" is but one of the perplexing situations with which, as a world power, the United States will be involved after the armistice. A *Fortune* editor, F. Lawrence Babcock, recently returned from an eight-month tour of the Middle East, tells of the personalities, the conflicting stresses, and the factors in the problems of that region.

"Postscript on Bretton Woods" is a critique of that conference. "Report From Ottawa" discusses Canada's future as a Canadian sees it.

Eliot Janeway, distinguished publicist, relates the story of the 1944 Chicago conventions in "Birth of the Tickets." No small part of his story is the remarkable set of cartoons by Derso and Kelen.

The fourth article in the series on city planning appears in this issue: Guy Greer's "A New Start for the Cities." It is an analysis of the methods for dealing with the problem of slums.

An attack on the tariffs and a plea for the removal of obstacles to international trade are made by economist Henry C. Simons of the University of Chicago ("The U. S. Holds the Cards").

The International Labor Organization has proved itself one of the most useful agencies of the League of Nations and very likely will go on whether the League survives or not. A description of its history and its work is given in "What Is the ILO?"

COUNCIL FOR DEMOCRACY

The Council for Democracy, a non-profit organization, studies current problems in need of public attention and action. Its board, under the chairmanship of Raymond Gram Swing, is made up of public-spirited citizens interested in promoting democratic action. A free bulletin, "Write Now," is issued fortnightly and supplies information useful in solving "national problems by attack on the community level." Each issue takes up one problem.

Teachers of the social studies particularly will be interested in "Write Now." Additional information may be secured from Council For Democracy, 11 West 42 Street, New York 18, N.Y.

WORLD VIEW OF EDUCATION

Concern about education from the international standpoint does not diminish, nor is there any less insistence that world peace will fail if it is not supported by world education. The stream of suggestions concerning agencies, organizations, programs, purposes, and other aspects of the problem flows as strongly as ever.

Many phases of international education are discussed in eighteen articles in the September number of *The Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. Eminent scholars, school heads, students of world affairs, and others joined minds to make this number on "International Frontiers in Education" outstandingly useful in showing what we face, educationally speaking, when war ends. Such questions are examined as how to re-educate Germany, how to make the world safe for democracy, how to promote intercultural relations, what agencies—already existing or to be created—to employ, and how to lay the psychological foundations for peace and educate for world citizenship.

It is fast becoming evident that we must be as concerned today with training for world citizenship as we have been with training for national citizenship. Do we yet appreciate sufficiently that world citizenship has risen in significance until its importance is equal to American or Russian or Swiss or Brazilian citizenship? Should we not begin now to train youth as thoroughly for world citizenship as we do for national citizenship?

Many students insist that an international office of education is necessary. Numerous references to it are made in this issue of *The Annals*. Before the NEA Representative Assembly, last summer, Superintendent Alexander J. Stoddard of Philadelphia delivered a remarkable address in which he pleaded for an international office of education, in the course of his analysis of what is involved in "Education and the People's Peace." Like other educational leaders Dr. Stoddard is convinced that our world requires education to be represented at the peace conference.

His address is printed in *The Journal* of the National Education Association for September. So powerfully were Dr. Stoddard's hearers affected that they unanimously named him NEA representative on the peace commission, if education is granted a place at the peace table.

"G. I. JOE'S" EDUCATION

Possibly three billion dollars, a sum exceeding the current annual cost of American public education, will be spent by the Federal government on an educational program for the veterans. The program, in charge of the Veterans Administration, will probably reach a million men and women. Public education is bound to be vitally influenced.

It is likely that the veterans will want specific training and will want it pruned of non-essentials. They will look for functional courses which can be completed in not too long a span of time and will oppose prescription of the traditional numbers of credits, semester hours, and courses required of everybody. Degrees will not interest many as much as technical and vocational courses for specific use. A considerable number, of course, will seek high school or college diplomas. If this appraisal of what "G. I. Joe" wants is true, how will it affect existing curricula?

In any case, should not the education of veterans be broader than the specifically functional? Does not the general welfare require that their education include broader citizenship and cultural training which history and social science and literature and related studies give? Important elements of this problem are stated by the editor in the brief description of "The Veterans' Education Program," in the September 9 issue of *School and Society*.

There seems to be the feeling abroad in the land that we supply adequate technical education but are not giving older youth the general education they need. Certainly articles about general education appear with great regularity. In the annual education number of the *Saturday Review of Literature* (September 16) it was the subject of much comment. Dean Harry J. Carman, well-known historian, writes with vigor and deep conviction about educating American youth in the physical and social sciences and humanities if we are to succeed in "The Making of Leadership." George D. Stoddard, in "The 'Last-Chance' Curriculum," argues for general education in the junior college, the last-chance for most youth. Ordway Tead, special editor of the issue, underscores the problem of general education in his editorial, "Education Is People," a concise portrayal of the major educational problems of today. Both Stoddard and Tead are first-rank educators whose writings command respect.

Although this issue of the *SRL* is focussed on col-

lege education, it is of great worth to all teachers.

EDUCATION FOR RACIAL UNDERSTANDING

The summer number of the quarterly *Journal of Negro Education* dealt with "Education for Racial Understanding." It was inspired by the conflict between the American principles of human equality and the traditional practices of racial discrimination. Never was it more necessary to work out the problem in the United States, since the continuance of the conflict jeopardizes the role of the nation as a responsible world leader. Colored races everywhere are sensitive to the treatment of colored people in this country. Injustice to such peoples here arouses hostile attitudes in colored races elsewhere, tending to paralyze even the most altruistic of American world policies.

The subject was chosen for study by the *Journal* because education is the principal means for inculcating attitudes. Right understanding will create attitudes favorable to the raising of the level of the subordinate racial group, and not merely attitudes of tolerance or of understanding without concomitant action. Education alone, of course, will not suffice. It needs the aid of other agencies such as law, organized labor, and government.

For reasons of space, the symposium was confined to the problem in the United States as it concerns the Negro. The eighteen papers fall into three divisions: "I, Bases of Education for Racial Understanding," "II, Educational Programs for the Improvement of Race Relations," and "III, Next Steps in Education for Racial Understanding." The viewpoints of the sociologist, the psychologist, and the anthropologist are presented. Programs of churches, labor groups, philanthropic and government bodies, schools, and other agencies are evaluated by persons identified with them. And next steps are suggested which seem necessary if the programs are to be improved. Eduard C. Lindeman discussed the philosophical approach to the problem and others described the roles of labor, the school, and other institutions. The entire project aimed to "provide a point of departure for a realistic program of education for racial understanding. . . ."

Older, abler students will find this symposium enlightening and helpful. Useful, too, is the notable Public Affairs Pamphlet on *The Negro in America* which appeared just before Labor Day. It is a "must" for social studies teachers.

Teachers desirous of knowing what specific activities schools are pursuing in order to cultivate interracial and intercultural understanding will find the story of one school's experiences in *The Nation's Schools* for September. A librarian, a principal, and a teacher—Florence D. Cleary, Loretta Fitzpatrick, and Thelma Hurd—relate what a Detroit junior high

school has been doing about it. The school has a mixed population, including many Negro children who have only recently arrived from the South. All departments of the school cooperated to work out the project, "Our American Neighbors." The account, "We Must Give Our Children Understanding," is a practical contribution to a problem facing many schools. An excellent introduction is supplied by the editor of the magazine, Arthur B. Moehlman, in his foreword on "Schools Must Be Impartial."

ERA OF SERVICE INDUSTRIES

All too brief reference was made here last month, because of space limitations, to Allan G. B. Fisher's notable *Harper's* article in July on "The Clash Between Progress and Security." One of his primary objects was to show that an era of service industries is dawning, with tremendous consequences for man's plane of living. In the agricultural era the vast majority of people had to live on the land, tilling the soil and tending the cattle in order to get the necessities of living for themselves. There was little surplus to support others, and standards of living were low for the vast majority. The more advanced technology of the Industrial Revolution provided such surpluses and tremendously raised standards of living. Producers, moreover, now rarely produced goods for consumption by their own families but produced for sale in markets. The output of machines, in fact, threatened to be too lavish at times and to result in "over-production." A third step seems about to be taken today. Service industries are outstripping manufacturing as once manufacturing had outstripped agriculture.

C. Hartley Grattan, in *Harper's* for September, found in this trend toward service occupations a key to our postwar employment problem. His thought is summed up in the title of his article: "Factories Can't Employ Everybody! Why the Service Industries Must Expand."

Too many of us believe, he said, that the war industries must be converted into as many peacetime goods-factories, to which the returning soldiers and others will go to work. Such conversion is actually needed only in part. Even more we need tradesmen, professional and semi-professional workers, government employees, hotel keepers, employees in vacation resorts, office help, workers in the expanding transportation and communication business, writers and others connected with the press, musicians and artists of all kinds, and so on.

This third step will bring about another great advance in living standards. In making his life a man must have more than the goods that serve his body. He needs travel, books, pictures, intellectual challenge and new knowledge, spiritual sustenance, and the thousand and one other values that the services

can render but that neither agriculture nor manufacturing can bestow. These values, once confined to the privileged classes, have now come within the reach of all. The dependence of the services upon the other two vocations is obvious, of course.

Mr. Grattan illustrated this trend in graphs. Between 1870 and 1930 there was a great shift toward employment in the services. In 1870 more than half of American workers were engaged in agriculture, but by 1930 the proportion had fallen to little more than one-fifth. About that fraction had been engaged in manufacturing shortly after the Civil War and it had increased during succeeding decades until it was about one-third and has since then receded somewhat. Only one-quarter of the employed in 1870 had been in the services but now they amount to almost one-half. If these are the trends then the postwar problem of unemployment should be met primarily by jobs in the services and secondarily by jobs in the extractive and manufacturing industries.

MISSOURI VALLEY AUTHORITY

The Missouri Valley suffers, as we know, from ruinous and recurring floods and droughts. No unified, regional organization manages the region in order to curb these ills and promote the prosperity and welfare of the valley. Piecemeal and sporadic attacks made upon floods and droughts do not solve the problem. The idea of an MVA, similar to the TVA, is taking hold, however, says the editor of the *St. Louis Post-Dispatch* and his wife. Ralph and Jean Lightfoot Cogan tell the interesting story in *The New Republic* for September 4 ("For a Missouri Valley Authority"). Rufus Terral, an editorial writer on the same newspaper, describes the campaign for an MVA, in a longer article in *Survey Graphic* for September ("Big Magic for the Big Muddy").

The Tennessee Valley Authority, of course, provides the model. Already Senator Murray of Montana and Senator Gillette of Iowa have introduced bills to create a Missouri Valley Authority. Their action is the result of increasing talk and interest in the project. The geographical unity of a region such as the Missouri or the Tennessee Valley creates physical problems as broad as the region itself. From the standpoint of the public welfare such problems can best be dealt with only by a regional agency.

Vested interests which profit from things as they are, oppose the project. Navigation interests, power companies, contractors profiting from the piecemeal operations, "pork-barrel artists," and others are working hard to prevent action. On the other hand, newspapers like the *Post-Dispatch* and organizations such as the National Farmers' Union support an MVA. Under their leadership public awareness is

growing, and more and more public pressure is being exerted upon Congress.

UNITED STATES-CANADIAN BORDER

We are reminded from time to time of the great benefits flowing from the unfortified and ungarrisoned border between Canada and Alaska and the United States. That neither country lives in fear of the other is certainly due in part to the sense of security created, paradoxically, by the unarmed 5527 miles of land and water boundary between the two nations. It has freed both from the burdensome expense of maintaining fleets in the Great Lakes and soldiers and equipment on the border.

The security and peaceful intercourse enjoyed by the United States and Canada surely can be enjoyed also by other nations. The boundary is an object lesson which may teach others more quickly if greater publicity were given to it.

For these and other reasons George H. Nelson of Central Michigan College of Education urges the publicizing of the Rush-Bagot Agreement of 1817 and its consequences. In "The Demilitarized Border," in *School and Society* for August 26, he describes the agreement and its extension, enumerates its advantages over the years, and gives reasons for teaching about it in the secondary schools.

AMERICAN INDIAN ORIGINS

Last month attention was drawn to Frank C. Hibben's tale, in the July *Harper's*, of the search for Folsom Man, forerunner of the American Indian. Clark Wissler, one of America's foremost anthropologists, takes up the same story—"The Origin of the American Indian"—in the September number of *Natural History*. He brings together the scattered evidences from our hemisphere that point to a migration by way of Siberia upwards of 15,000 years ago. The many illustrations of Indian and Mongolian types, of artifacts and animals, and the maps make vivid this scholarly survey. The very recency of our knowledge of early Americans arouses our interest in the scanty clues to human life in the Americas in late Pleistocene time.

THE VOTING AGE

"Should the Legal Voting Age Be Reduced to 18 Years?" is the debate topic for the current school year, selected by the National University Extension Association. Since Pearl Harbor and the Selective Draft, people have argued that youth who are old enough to fight are old enough to vote. Georgia evidently believed it for she lowered the voting age to eighteen a year ago.

What are the facts and the background of this

issue? The *Congressional Digest* for August-September, the special annual debate number, sets them forth. In addition, a table shows the voting age in more than half the nations of the world. The story is told, also, of the unsuccessful efforts made in thirty

states to follow Georgia's lead. In conclusion, the pros and cons are debated by members of our federal and state governments, political leaders, publicists, and others.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD H. McFEELY

The George School, George School, Pennsylvania

America's Maritime History. By Lieut. A. C. Denison, U.S.N.R. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, Pp. 236, 1944. \$2.50.

Navy in the Sky. Written and arranged by Wallace W. Elton, Lieut., U.S.N.R. New York: Whitelsey House, Pp. 104. Illustrated. 1944. \$2.00.

The eyes of America, as so many times in the past, are turned seaward. Thousands of mid-western farm boys are wearing navy blue. Small armies of men and women labor in the ring of shipyards which dot our coast. Millions of mothers wait anxiously for news of safe arrivals. These books about the sea are, therefore, especially timely.

Lieutenant Denison saw sea duty as a naval officer in World War I. After Pearl Harbor he again left his business and profession to enter the Navy. At one of the Maritime Officers' Training Schools he has been lecturing to wartime sailors on the history and traditions of the sea. *America's Maritime History* is a result of the research upon which his lectures were based.

The first quarter of the book is devoted to a brief survey of sea power before we became a nation. Egyptians, Phoenicians, Greeks, Romans, Orientals, Byzantines, Vikings, Venetians, Portuguese, Dutch, Spanish and English, all have contributed to the history and tradition of the sea and all receive brief mention in this volume. These first chapters contain frequent reference to the origin of modern sea terms and to the development of various types of ships.

The remainder of the book is devoted to America's maritime development. The Navy, the Coast Guard and the Merchant Marine all receive attention. The part played by each in our several wars is outlined, and the notable achievements are recognized. Various improvements in the design and use of ships are analyzed. Special attention is given to the changes in national attitude toward the merchant service, and to the importance of that service in the coming post-war years. The bibliography is brief and there is no documentation. A more serious defect in a work of this type is the lack of an index.

Lieutenant Denison is an amateur historian, but

his ability to understand relationships and to synthesize the research of others is worthy of a professional. Witness the following paragraph which concludes the introduction:

In examining maritime history it is amazing to observe how frequently the geography of distinguished maritime events ties in with the geography of events in this war. The search for the Northwest Passage, for example, can be identified precisely with the Murmansk run. We find that Atlantic convoys are nothing new. Malta has figured prominently in many different centuries and has withstood attacks nearly as vicious and prolonged as those of this war. We can refer the recent campaign in Africa—the beginning of the end in this war—to the beginning of all ships and shipping, for maritime history and tradition began in that land and there this book begins. Stand by to get under way!

This book contains a great deal of information, yet it is not heavy. It is apparent that the author has a deep feeling for the sea. This, together with an easy style and frequent passages which stand out as clearly as a full rigged schooner against the dying sun, lifts the book into the class of the unusual. One of the best chapters is that devoted to the packets, whalers, and clippers. It is filled with graphic illustrations and comparisons, such as the following (p. 94):

The *Rainbow*, called the first extreme clipper, was built for the tea trade. There is something appropriate in the fact that the first clipper should have been a carrier of tea. There is a cleanness and delicate sharpness about China tea that suggests the clipper ship. The bow of the clipper was thin, like the first sip of tea. The greatest body of the clipper was well aft, just as the richness of the tea is in the first after-taste. Tea immediately cuts into the water when the two liquids are mixed; the clipper ship's bow could slice through a wave instead of frothing on top.

With the enthusiasm of an amateur, the thoroughness of a good naval officer, and the vision and imagination of a trained architect and experienced planner, Lieutenant Denison has produced a book which should be read by all citizens, historians and laymen alike, who would weigh the past to better understand the present and plan for the future.

Lieutenant Elton has produced another volume, which although designed primarily for new Navy personnel, will be of great interest to civilians. One hundred twenty-eight official U. S. Navy and Marine Corps photographs have been well chosen, logically arranged and intelligently explained to make unmistakably clear the power and importance of the Navy above the seas. No words can adequately describe the beauty of these photographs. They must be seen to be appreciated, and in seeing them the reader will comprehend the importance of aviation as a branch of sea power.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

U. S. Coast Guard
Groton, Connecticut

The University and the Modern World. By Arnold S. Nash. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1943. Pp. xxiv, 324. \$2.50.

The reader of this volume will find a content different from that which the title would probably lead him to expect. It contains nothing about administration, teaching methodologies or curriculum organization in the sense in which these terms are used in the current literature on professional education. In fact, it touches university education directly at only a few spots. Fundamentally it is an account of the growth and functioning of human thinking and has a bearing on universities only to the extent to which we look upon universities as favorite places from which cultural patterns of thinking are shaped. This point of view is more flattering to those institutions than their historical place in the development of culture has really justified.

The book devotes 142 pages to a well documented, scholarly account of the development and the decline of scientific thinking, and 72 more pages to an account of patterns of scientific thinking in Nazi Germany and Bolshevik Russia. But scientific thinking is not thought of as pertaining only to the natural sciences but also to such other fields as the social sciences and philosophy and theology, which fields have tried to imitate the patterns of scientific research.

Thinkers who pride themselves on being scientific fancy that they are neutral in their points of view and objective in their judgments; but Nash undertakes to show that thinking never is, and never can be, "impartial" and "objective"; the thinking of

men is always colored by the culture in which they are immersed, whether they are scientists or ordinary observers. The very criteria of "objective" truthfulness are a part of the mores of the thinkers' society. Thus all knowledge has a "social background." The "attempt to correlate the growth and formulation of knowledge with its social background has come to be called the sociology of knowledge." (p. 230) The effort to deny this social background, and to keep away from value judgments, has brought about sterility in the present status of human knowledge.

Nash calls upon "Christian scholars" to join in a dynamic search to "work towards an intellectual synthesis for the twentieth century which, as an interpretation of human life and destiny, can be set over against the positivistic, the Marxist, the liberal humanitarian *Weltanschauungen* now current on the liberal democratic world."

He views this change of temper and technique in scholarship as a part of the fundamental revolution now going on in the world. His book makes very clear what are the ills against which we are asked to revolt; but he confesses to entire uncertainty as to what the "form of the new frame of reference can be . . . before it is achieved," although he believes it must be based on the Judaic-Christian tradition which, having outlasted the fall of many civilizations, has therefore a source beyond any one of them.

The author is far from tolerant of the interpretations by others with which he disagrees; the book is replete with such expressions as: "this false idol," "this calamitous influence," "their distinctive and calamitous presuppositions," "cardinal error," "profoundly wrong," etc. But he would doubtless reply that it is not the business of a Christian scholar to be tolerant in the sense of being ethically indifferent where dynamic truth is at stake.

Whether the author of this book has correctly indicated the direction that thinking and research should take in the modern university and the modern world may be subject to question; but those of us who believe that we are in the midst of a fundamental revolution and that scholars should focus their talents on the task of carrying the revolution through to the highest type of success will wish to consider all proposals that contain any promise, including these so vigorously (but somewhat laboriously) set forth in this book by the "Chaplain To the Student Christian Movement and Lectures in Political Economy at the University of Toronto."

CHARLES C. PETERS

Pennsylvania State College
State College, Pennsylvania

Educational Inbreeding. By Harold E. Snyder. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers Col-

lege, Columbia University, 1943. Pp. ix, 160. \$2.35.

This monograph was prepared as a doctoral thesis at Teachers College under the direction of Willard S. Elsbree. The purpose of the study is to reveal the causes, extent and results of the employment of local teachers on the quality of the educational program in city school systems. Three hundred and fifteen cities were included in the study, and a comparative analysis of 1,387 local and non-local teachers in fifteen cities was made on the basis of certain factors commonly presumed to be related to teaching effectiveness as training, experience, participation in professional and civic organizations, travel, professional writings and innovations in teaching procedures, and upon certain general characteristics as marital status and absence from work. Annotations and other documentary references reveal that relevant research studies have been used. In addition to this the author states that he has collected information by questionnaire and interview from superintendents in cities with from 14,000 to 100,000 population. It is further claimed that an intensive study of the problem was made in nine city school systems in New York state.

The author maintains that the policy of employing a considerable proportion of local teachers in cities is an outgrowth of the basic social organization of earlier communities in which the residents resented intrusions by outsiders. Indications of this form of cultural inbreeding are manifested in many places where there is insistence that employees in public office shall be residents of the locality. It is pointed out that dominant, ethnic, religious, and political groups wield a powerful influence for the selection of local teachers.

The author concludes from his study that the proportion of local teachers is higher in small cities than in large ones, in elementary than in high schools, and in low turnover cities than in high turnover cities, and that there is greater occupational stability of well-trained than poorly trained beginning local teachers. It is held that there is a strong probability that state educational policies particularly certification, financial support and tenure legislation affect inbreeding tendencies in localities within the state and that tenure laws and equalization programs tend to discourage the employment of local teachers while high certification standards may increase it. No appreciable difference was found to exist between local and non-local teachers in absence from work, membership in professional and civic organizations, travel, collegiate preparation, and ratings by their superintendents.

This is one of the first scientific studies on educational inbreeding, and although made with a limited sampling of schools, the results point to the

need for further research in this field particularly with relation to schools in rural and small urban communities. It may be found that the employment of local teachers in small communities is more detrimental to the improvement of instruction than in large urban areas since the cultural pattern of the farm is usually less diversified.

The book includes several statistical tables and a few charts. A selected bibliography has also been included. However, the inclusion of a carefully prepared index would have added considerably to the use of this publication. The book is set-up in outline form and the concluding paragraphs in each chapter are numbered so that it becomes relatively easy to follow the author's findings and conclusions. It is hoped that there will be further studies in this field conducted on a broader scale but in line with the general plan outlined in this study.

OLIVER S. HECKMAN

Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania

William Penn. By William Wistar Comfort. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1944. Pp. 185. \$2.00.

This timely book is serving two purposes. The one is the honoring the 300th birthday of the greatest among the colonizers of America, William Penn, who was born October 24, 1644 (NS). The other is to resist the contemporary counter-revolution against democracy with a record of the origin and growth of democratic principles in William Penn's mind, and their practical application in the province of Pennsylvania. They were rooted in his religion. The resultant faith in God and man was maintained despite losses, failures and personal embarrassments. The net result is summed up in pregnant paragraphs:

We have seen that he provided for government by the people through the popular election of their representatives; he proposed plans looking toward the substitution of arbitration for war in the settlement of international disputes; he set up open courts with juries of one's peers and with justice for the accused; he reformed the prison system by substituting workhouses for dungeons; he restricted capital punishment for the crimes of willful murder and treason; he provided for an affirmation as the equivalent of a legal oath; he successfully advocated friendly treatment of the natives instead of seeking to corrupt and exploit them; he respected the rights of conscience and freedom of worship, avoiding the abuse of a state church; he offered a plan for cooperation between the American colonies; and he made pro-

vision for popular and practical education of his citizens.

It is certain that some of these rights of man had long before found expression in "the good old laws of England," but we have seen how they were being violated under the Stuarts in Penn's time. Other reforms had been formulated in the blue prints of social and political philosophers, but had not yet been realized. Penn put them into effect. While the leading European countries were still in the thralls of absolutism, and England was fighting to release her people from the domination of a reactionary royal family, Penn went the whole distance toward popular sovereignty and freedom of conscience.

Leading his fellow Quakers, he abolished persecution of dissenters as an instrument of church policy. He did not destroy other threats to human freedom, such as the licentious worldliness of the society of the Restoration period, or the imperialistic and absolutist tendencies of international relations in the seventeenth century. He was able to stand them off and establish a democratic colony which expanded its influence through the state of Pennsylvania and helped form the United States of America, the world's greatest attempt to realize "popular sovereignty and freedom of conscience" on a continental scale. "Few men," writes the author, "have done so much to fix in America the demand for the Four Freedoms."

The book is short and readable. The author's well known sense of humor has entered into the structure of this thought, revealing the unusual coincidences, the amazing contrasts, and human shortcomings of William Penn's life.

Biographers of the Founder of Pennsylvania have differed about his religion, its extent, its consistency, its influence on his public life. Here Dr. Comfort holds a positive conviction. His devotion to the interests of human society and government

is due to his trust in the Quaker faith in divine guidance and in "that of God" in every man. To carry over this faith into our larger human relationships, to trust man as well as God, has always proved difficult. Penn unquestionably found it to be so at many points in his life. Possessing a lively faith, born of a personal religious experience, he offers an outstanding example of one who tried to apply this faith on the large stage of human affairs. Penn is not a hero in the dramatic sense of the word; there was no single moment, so far as we can see, when he risked his life in a courageous act of personal self-sacrifice. But for fifty years he was a noble example to modern statesmen, in that his larger acts for human betterment were

all prompted by a profound belief in the permanent validity of whatsoever things are true, honest, just, pure, lovely, and of good report.

GEORGE A. WALTON

The George School

George School, Pennsylvania

Alexander James Dallas. By Raymond Walters, Jr. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1943. Pp. v, 251. \$2.50.

This volume of the Pennsylvania Lives series deals with a man who was prominently associated with American life and politics during the early formative period. Alexander James Dallas was first of all a lawyer of note and in spite of his numerous other responsibilities never lost his interest in or his love for the law.

While a distinguished member of the Philadelphia bar, he made important literary and journalistic contributions as well as editing the first four volumes of the United States Supreme Court Reports.

He was an organizer of the Democratic-Republican party and took an active part in the Whiskey Rebellion. His zeal for the party of Jefferson did not permit him to turn his back upon what he considered to be sound political and constitutional practices for which reason he lost the support of the more radical branch of the party. This along with his foreign birth and aristocratic leanings made it impossible for him to secure any elective office.

He served with distinction in such appointive offices as Secretary of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, as United States District Attorney for Eastern Pennsylvania, and as Secretary of the Treasury under President Madison during a very critical period near the end of the War of 1812. In the last-named office he performed brilliantly to restore the credit of a practically bankrupt nation. During his two years as Secretary of the Treasury he not only reestablished national solvency, but he also expedited the return of specie payments, hastened the restoration of the Bank of the United States and helped to lay the basis for a national protective tariff policy.

This study, which is based largely on manuscript sources, sheds new light on both the local and national scene. Teachers will find it a useful reference volume.

WALTER H. MOHR

The George School

George School, Pennsylvania

Citizenship. By Stanley Johnson and William M. Alexander. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1944. Pp. viii, 498. Illustrated. \$1.80.

This book is intended to be a civics book in high school. It is obviously a reaction against the traditional civics text that is largely devoted to the origin,

development, organization and functions of our government. It tries to give a picture of the major factors in society and the privileges and responsibilities of students as citizens in that society. There are profuse and interesting illustrations of the present day world.

The authors have succeeded very well in giving a tone of reality and a challenging interest for the average high school student. All through there is emphasis on what the student and citizen can do to protect and improve the American system of living. At the end of each chapter are questions that bring in consideration of local, school and immediate problems and conditions. Much of this has great practical value for the student. Of course, the really skilled teacher has reached beyond the text and has been doing this type of thing for students for many years.

Little more than a fifth of the book is devoted directly to government. There is scant attention to the historical background. Probably it is expected that the teacher will fill in the gaps and provide specific factual material on the structure and functions of government. There is a good but rather short section on the variations of local units and city governments.

The appendixes include the Atlantic Charter along with the customary Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. All through the book there is much material that has a direct bearing on experiences and problems during World War II.

To show the scope of the material included in the text, here is a quotation from the Foreword to Part Five (p. 398):

In Part One we "took stock" of our natural resources, and then studied the way in which citizens planned. We saw that one first sets up certain ideals and the plans for attaining these ideals, then assembles the necessary machinery and tools, and finally does the job. Ideals put into action in this way are dynamic ideals, and they lead us to an ideal, or dynamic democracy. In Part Two we took up the important ideals, or goals, of American democracy and saw what programs we had for realizing these goals. In Part Three we studied our machinery of government, and in Part Four the machinery of industry. Now, in the final part, we must see what our immediate jobs are, if we are to use successfully our machinery of government and industry in attaining our ideals.

The authors set themselves a Herculean task in presenting to the student his place in the social system. The style of writing is vigorous and has an enthusiastic tone. The attitudes expressed and implied are liberal and favor change if that will mean an improvement in human living. The chapter on "Making a Living" is fine. In trying to cover so much material in 500 pages, and with much of that

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space devoted to illustrations, the authors could not go into adequate detail on many important subjects.

This is a stimulating text. But many would want to use it along with another text that gives more of the historical background and organization of government as such. We feel that if properly done the story of the origins and early struggles would give a deep understanding and appreciation of our system and ideals of government.

JULIA EMERY

Wichita High School East
Wichita, Kansas

Our Global World. By Grace Croyle Hankins. New York: The Gregg Publishing Company, 1944. Pp. 91. \$1.32.

Many junior high schools and senior high schools recognize the importance of revamping their social studies curriculum in order to include more teaching of geography, especially emphasizing the "new" global aspects which have been neglected to a great degree heretofore. They face the problem of finding the necessary time to add much that is new or to give extra emphasis to what is already being taught. This new book by Grace Croyle Hankins, an experienced and successful teacher, will help hard-pressed teachers to solve these problems in their teaching.

Our Global World is a brief treatment of geogra-

phy from a global point of view, suitable for use at the junior high school and senior high school level, where the time that may be devoted to such study is limited. This small volume gives much of the salient information about world geography that should be familiar to students of the social studies at this level. The book is interestingly written, accurate in content, and is replete with excellent maps, pictures and other illustrative materials which add greatly to its teachability and usefulness. One feature this reviewer liked particularly, a feature not found often enough in geography books, is a section given to the important problems of maps and how to read and interpret them. It makes the relationships between the globe and the flat maps, for example, easily understood. Students need this sort of help because the flat maps distort size relationships and too often pupils will study maps without realizing or understanding this.

Teachers at the secondary school level will welcome this very useful addition to the growing amount of materials dealing with global geography and ways of teaching it.

R. H. McF.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

A Design for a Charter of the General International Organization. International Conciliation, No. 402 (August, 1944). Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 West 117 Street, New York City 27. Pp. 24. 5 cents.

Time Has Come for Action. By Clark M. Eichelberger. 1944. Commission to Study the Organization of Peace, 8 West 40 Street, New York City 18. Pp. 32. 10 cents.

A General International Organization was envisaged in the Moscow Declaration and the subsequent Senate (Connally) Resolution of November 5, 1943. Under the leadership of the distinguished student and judge, Manley O. Hudson, a group of Americans has prepared a design for a charter of such an organization. It is an important contribution to the discussion of one of the great problems of our day.

The *Charter* provides that "all existing States would at all times be comprised in the GIO," sharing in responsibilities and in representation in its Assembly. The *Charter*, as the basic instrument, suggests the general nature and structure of the organization: a legislative Assembly of representatives of all nations, a smaller Executive Council, a Security Committee to assure peace, the Permanent Court of International Justice, an administrative Secretary-General, and other bodies.

No attempt is made either to name all such bodies or to propose solutions for problems, since they should be particularized in terms of contemporary

circumstances. The *Charter* does provide for such matters as State representation, voting, allocation of responsibility between great and small powers, means for settling disputes, financial support, treaty making, and means for amending the *Charter* itself. The *Charter* embodies the experience with the League of Nations, preserves such useful agencies as the World Court and the ILO, and avoids details. It fits in with the pronouncements of leading statesmen.

The basic purpose of this *Design* is to promote the general welfare of all nations by democratic cooperation. As such it deserves serious consideration by all who seek ways to get rid of war and institute peaceful means for meeting world problems.

In *Time Has Come for Action* the director of the Commission to Study the Organization of Peace proposes practical ways for carrying out the purposes of the *Design* for the GIO. What nations shall initiate the GIO? How shall it be controlled? What obligations are entailed? Precisely how shall peace be maintained and justice assured? What shall be done with colonies? Who will pay the bills? What shall be done with the League of Nations? Such are the questions taken up and they are answered in down-to-earth fashion.

Obviously this pamphlet is an important complement of the *Design*. It does not shut its eyes to ideal solutions of the problems involved in launching the GIO, but it rivets attention upon immediate steps to take for getting the organization successfully under way in the immediate future. Together, the pamphlets proffer one of the most statesmanlike plans for establishing at once an organization to insure world peace under law and promote the welfare of all nations.

MORRIS WOLF

Freedom of the Air. By Keith Hutchison. 1944. Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N.Y. Pp. 32. Illustrated. 10 cents.

The problem of freedom of the air may cause a greater national headache than ever sprang from the problem of freedom of the seas. While naval vessels stop at the shore line, airplanes, in a matter of hours, can be over the most vital centers of a nation's life. If sovereign nations scramble for air superiority, air privileges, perhaps air dominance or monopoly, mankind will face greater insecurity and unhappiness than ever.

Mr. Hutchison reviews the rise and spread of air traffic and the efforts to regulate it. He argues that anarchic, international competition for air dominance will be ruinous and urges that now is the time to establish international agreement on the air rights of nations. "A permanent representative international

board with well defined powers must be set up to regulate air traffic on a fair and impartial basis."

Mr. Hutchison's popular survey will interest youth who, after all, are likely to be more closely implicated in this vital problem than the older generation.

M. W.

Reconversion—The Job Ahead. By J. A. Livingston. 1944. Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N.Y. Pp. 32. Illustrated. 10 cents.

A practical analysis of the problem of changing industry over to peacetime production when war ends. Mr. Livingston, an editor connected with the War Production Board, is in position to discuss the problem realistically, but his views are his own and not those of the WPB. All students of the problem will find this pamphlet of great help.

M. W.

Cooperation for What? By F. R. Scott. New York: American Council Institute of Pacific Relations, 1944. Pp. 64. 25 cents.

Institute of Pacific Relations pamphlet No. 11 in which Professor Scott, a well-known Canadian scholar, discusses the problems facing the United States and British Commonwealth as they look forward to the post-war period.

The Curriculum as an Integrating Force for Ethnic Variations. By Idabelle Yeiser. Cambridge, Mass.: Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1943. Pp. v, 17. 25 cents.

A paper presented at the Harvard Workshop in Intercultural Education.

Latin America: An Interpretation of Main Trends in Its History. By Charles C. Griffin. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1944. Pp. 96. 50 cents.

Designed to provide secondary school teachers of American history with materials which can be used to enliven and clarify some of the most significant aspects of the development of Latin America.

Local Pre-School Conferences. Lansing: Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum, State Board of Education, 1944. Pp. 42. 25 cents.

Number 2 of "Leads to Better Secondary Schools in Michigan." A handbook for help in planning pre-school opening conferences in Michigan.

Economic Interpretation of the Constitution. By Eugene C. Barker. Reprint from the *Texas Law Review*. June 1944. Pp. 3-21.

This is a well-organized evaluation of Beard's *An Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the*

United States based on a statement of the background of the years before 1787, an analysis of the Beard thesis, and observations on the misuse of it by Beard's disciples. The author attempts to show that while "members of the [Constitutional] Convention owned public securities and other forms of property . . . the conclusion that immediate selfish interest was the mainspring of their actions is tragically untrue" (page 21). He indicates certain deficiencies in and debatable uses of Beard's evidence, but has misinterpreted and misquoted (page 19) the first word of the title of Beard's controversial publication.

JOHN J. REED

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Transportation and Power. By William H. Johnson and Louis V. Newkirk. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944. Pp. vii, 129. \$1.60.

A very practical basal textbook for use in the industrial arts departments of junior and senior high schools. The entire book is devoted to the study of power-driven machines used in transportation. Each of the fifteen projects is fully explained in the text by full-page illustrations showing step-by-step procedures.

Living Together at Home and at School. By Prudence Cutright, W. W. Charters, and Mae Knight Clark. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944. Pp. vi, 181. \$1.20.

This excellent addition to the Elementary Social Studies Series gives to the first grade social studies reader a systematic and highly interesting groundwork for the later work in this field. It is excellently illustrated.

The White Feather. By Merritt Parmelee Allen. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1944. Pp. 196. \$2.00.

A sympathetic, interesting portrayal of a Kentucky mountain boy who lived during the War between the States.

Basic History of the United States. By Charles A. and Mary R. Beard. New York: Garden City Publishing Company, 1944. Pp. x, 508. 69 cents.

An excellent, basic history of our nation written by two outstanding historians and priced well within the limit to be afforded by all persons. It contains a brief bibliography and a good index.

Current Conceptions of Democracy. By John R. Berry. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943. Pp. 109. \$1.85.

A study that reveals the major points of agreement and disagreement in the interpretation of ordinary people who use the word "democracy." It is No. 888 of the Contributions to Education series.

The Pacific: Its Lands and Peoples. By Frances Carpenter. New York: American Book Company, 1944. Pp. ix, 502. Illustrated. \$1.40.

This book presents an over-all, peace-time picture of the lands and islands of Eastern Asia and the Western Pacific. A summary of important facts follows each section and statistics are concentrated in pictorial dramatizations. The index is combined with a self-pronouncing glossary.

One Hundred Great Years. By Thomas Ewing Dabney. Baton Rouge, La.: Louisiana State University Press, 1944. Pp. xii, 552. \$4.00.

The story of the *Times-Picayune* from its founding to 1940 (one of the oldest and most influential of American newspapers) into which is woven in skillful manner a picture of life in New Orleans and Louisiana.

A Century of Jewish Life. By Ismar Elbogen. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publications Society of America, 1944. Pp. xliii, 814. \$3.00.

An interesting, readable, accurate study of the Jewish people written by an eminent German-Jewish scholar and translated from the German by Moses Hadas.

Public Spending and Postwar Economic Policy. By Sherwood M. Fine. New York: Columbia University Press, 1944. Pp. ix, 177. \$2.50.

A book for those who are giving thought to the problem of how our democracy can achieve and maintain full employment in the postwar world.

From Despotism to Revolution, 1763-1789. By Leo Gershoy. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944. Pp. xvi, 355. \$4.00.

This book is a welcome addition to the excellent series, *The Rise of Modern Europe*, and deals in a scholarly, discerning way with the transition period between 1763 and 1789.

Latin America: Its History and Culture. By J. Fred Rippey and Lynn I. Perrigo. New York: Ginn and Company, 1944. Pp. xii, 476. \$1.76.

A new, interesting, and rather unique book for use in courses dealing with Latin America.

Citizens for a New World. Erling M. Hunt, Editor. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1944. Pp. viii, 186. \$2.00.

This, the *Fourteenth Yearbook* of the National

Council for the Social Studies, is an important publication in the field of postwar problems and international relations.

The Rising Crescent. By Ernest Jackh. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1944. Pp. x, 278. \$3.50.

This book brings to the reader a general survey of Turkey, as it was, is, and as it is developing.

The Economics of Demobilization. By E. Jay Howenstine, Jr. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1944. Pp. 336. Cloth Edition \$3.75. Paper edition \$3.25.

A scholarly, balanced account of the record, the problems, the controversies, the policies, and the outcomes emerging from World War I.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF MARCH 3, 1933, OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES, published monthly, October to May inclusive, at Philadelphia, Pa., and Menasha, Wis., for September 28, 1944.

State of Pennsylvania,
County of Philadelphia,

Before me, a notary public in and for said State and County aforesaid, personally appeared William Martin, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE SOCIAL STUDIES, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, as amended by the Act of March 3, 1933, embodied in section 537, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business manager are:

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(My commission expires March 23, 1947.)

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